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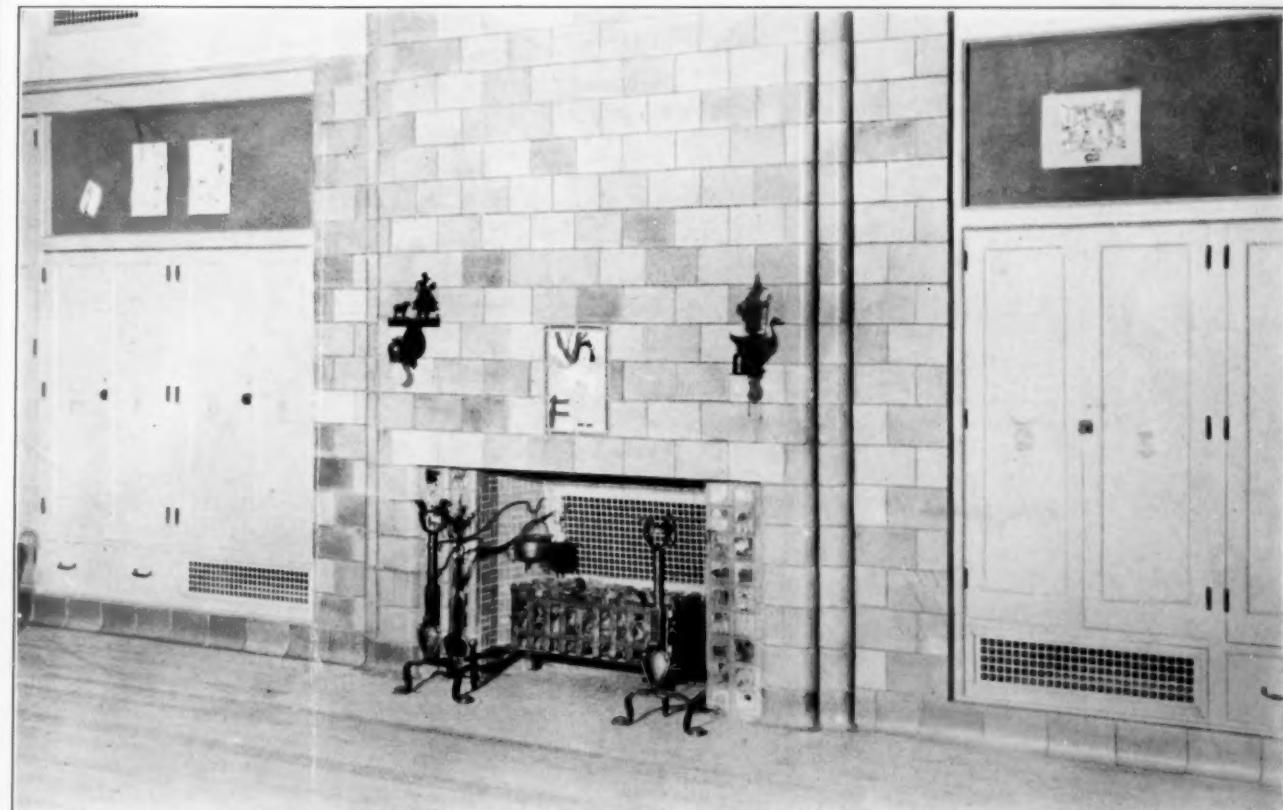
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SCHOOL LIFE



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SCHOOL LIFE is intended to be useful to all persons whose interest is in education. It is not devoted to any specialty. Its ambition is to present well-considered articles in every field of education which will be not only indispensable to those who work in that field but helpful to all others as well. Articles of high character on secondary education have been printed under the auspices of the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, of which Dr. J. B. Edmonson is chairman and Carl A. Jessen is secretary; these articles will continue. Miss Emeline S. Whitcomb, specialist in home economics of the Office of Education, has been instrumental in procuring many excellent papers by leading specialists in her subject. Through the courteous cooperation of Mrs. S. M. N. Marrs and others, achievements of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and progress in parent education are set forth in an important series. Similarly, the activity of Miss Edith A. Lathrop, assistant specialist in school library service, and of Mr. Carl H. Milam, secretary of the American Library Association, has produced a significant series of papers upon county libraries. The papers in these four unified series will not overshadow others of equal value. Consular reports on education in other countries constantly come to us through the State Department; frequent articles are printed on child health and school hygiene; higher education is represented in reasonable measure. In short, SCHOOL LIFE means to cover the whole field of education as well as its limited extent will permit.

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SCHOOL LIFE

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Secretary of the Interior, RAY LYMAN WILBUR · · · · · Commissioner of Education, WILLIAM JOHN COOPER

VOL. XV

WASHINGTON, D. C., MAY, 1930

No. 9

Opportunities For The Classroom Teacher as a Research Worker

The Analysis and Organization of Steps in a Learning Situation, the Testing of Effectiveness of Methods of Teaching, and the Evaluation of New Units of Curriculum Materials are Only a Few of the Many Opportunities Open to the Classroom Teacher for Research

By BESS GOODYKOONTZ

Assistant Commissioner of Education

JUDGING by the titles of educational books, magazine articles, and programs, the classroom teacher is an increasingly busy and important person. Such titles as these indicate the scope of her interests and responsibilities: "The teacher as social worker," "The teacher as curriculum builder," "The teacher as a student," "The teacher as artist," "The teacher as an agent of international good will," and "The teacher as a missionary of peace." To these many interests and services we are now to add that of conducting research in education. It is still possible to find objectors and objections both to allowing experimentation to be carried on in the classroom and to permitting the teachers themselves to participate in such experimentation. Such objectors say that teachers should make use of the results of others' research but that they should not attempt to participate in it. But the increasing emphasis given in teachers colleges and departments of education to training teachers in methods of research, and the increased attention given in educational publications to this phase of the teacher's work seem to indicate a growing recognition of the values to be derived from interesting and including classroom teachers in the work of evaluating what we are now doing and finding new ways to improve our practices.

Woody summarizes the values to the classroom teacher of participating in edu-

cational research in these statements: "It gives the teacher expert training in research methods," "It tends to result in superior teaching," "It provides a great stimulus to professional growth," "It aids the teacher in intelligent reading of educational literature," "It will aid in establishing teaching as a profession," "It often leads to both spiritual and monetary rewards."

This emphasis upon the values of research participation to the teacher herself is excellent; it shows one way of bringing new interest and new effectiveness into a work that may otherwise become routine; it includes the teacher not only as a part of the machinery of education but as a part of the brain that plans it as well. Another emphasis, I think, is possible. In addition to contributing much of value to the teacher herself, participation by the teacher in research problems in her own classroom has possibilities of adding much to our body of knowledges and skills which make improvement in teaching methods possible. Both these values—to herself and to her profession—are dependent upon her acceptance of the responsibility of preparing for and participating in purposeful, accurate, practical experimentation. Because final acceptance of new materials, new techniques, and new administrative schemes must depend upon whether they work in normal classroom situations, the teacher is in a strategic position for participation in their trials.

Certain types of investigation and experimentation are particularly well suited

to the classroom situation. One important type is that research which analyzes, tests, and organizes the steps in certain learning situations. Most skills are complex; analysis and experimentation are necessary to discover the steps in the learning process necessary for their mastery. Higher decade addition, writing a paragraph of description, answering a question which calls for comparison of two things or ideas, finding a picture which illustrates a story, preparing rebuttal for a debate—all these are bundles of skills, rather than single skills, to be mastered.

I recently read an account of the steps or degrees of success in teaching an idiot to put on his shoes. Putting on a shoe seems to us to be a simple unit skill, scarcely possible of analysis. But that is because we are normal adults and can not be expected to notice the steps in getting a shoe on correctly and therefore to understand the blunders possible to an idiot in getting the right shoe selected, the toe put first into the heel, the tongue of the shoe straight, the laces in the right holes, the knot tight enough to hold, and finally the fastening completed. But many of the skills which we assume children develop easily are as complex as getting on a shoe and are equally hard to acquire.

For instance, finding or drawing a picture which illustrates a story is a colossal task to a young student of primary standing. First he must know the story thoroughly, understanding the sequence of events. He must recognize the climax, or at least one of the high spots of interest,

Address delivered at meeting of the N. E. A., Department of Classroom Teachers, held at Atlantic City, N. J., Feb. 25, 1930.

for who would illustrate any but the important parts of the story? He must know very exactly the answers to "who," and "where," and "when," for the part of the story which he is to illustrate, for otherwise he might make his readers miss the point of the story. Furthermore, he must get appropriate action or expression into his picture or it will not actually illustrate. Thus illustrating a story may sound like play to the teacher who assigns it as a task, but it is a real job to the second-grade child. And similarly many of the assignments made every day in classrooms all over the country, from primary grades through college, assume that students have mastered very complex skills which teachers have never analyzed.

Samples from Courses of Study

Courses of study, too, customarily state their grade and subject objectives in terms of very complex and complicated skills. Here are some samples from an English course of study. Each one may sound simple, but as we examine it, it explodes into many unit skills and presents us with a difficult task of putting it into shape for pupils' use.

1. *To employ meaningful adjectives.*—What is an adjective? When is an adjective meaningful? What are some meaningful adjectives? What are some adjectives which do not express vivid meaning? How may good ones be used? Where, when, and how many? This simple-sounding objective presents an important problem in analysis.

2. *To relate a story so that interest will be maintained.*—What is an interesting story? How long may it be and still not endanger interest? What tricks of voice and expression help to maintain the interest? Should the story be learned? Should it have an introduction? This, too, is a complicated business.

An arithmetic course makes these prescriptions:

1. By the end of the first semester the child should be able to find pages in a book.

2. Third grade should establish the practice of checking or proving results.

3. Sixth grade should obtain a working acquaintance with common business forms.

Each one of these is as complex as getting on a shoe or making a picture to illustrate a story. Better teaching must wait for some one to analyze these complicated skills into their teaching and learning steps.

Such studies as those in arithmetic which aim to show the thinking steps in additive subtraction, to analyze the reasoning processes in solving word problems, and to determine the steps in diffi-

culty in long division indicate the outstanding services which can be made in this field. Many others are waiting for teachers who can start with the best knowledge that educational psychology has to offer on the learning habits of children, analyze the complex skills which children must master, and test out their analyses in the classroom. For instance, how should pupils be taught to make an outline? Shall we start with a ready-made outline, showing how its headings can be matched with items in a given paragraph? Or shall we start with the paragraph, showing that it has one most important idea which might well be called the name or heading of the paragraph? Reading a graph is a complicated skill, too. Shall we start its mastery by reading the graph or by making a graph? Zero difficulties in subtraction, reading map keys, summarizing supplementary-reading, addressing an envelope, lettering a poster are each frequently assigned or taught as a unit skill, but each one is exceedingly complex. Analysis of such learning steps is an important field for participation in research.

Study of Methods of Teaching

A second type of research in which the classroom teacher can be of great service is the experimental study of methods of teaching. We are still doing much of our teaching by guess. In many situations we are still teaching as we were taught. Texts in methods of teaching contain many admonitions to certain techniques, and, at least by implication, heap disdain upon all those who follow other methods. Often these admonitions are based only upon the author's individual and unsupported opinion. Here are some examples:

1. "For children from 9 to 15 years old the formal lecture is of little use." Of course to call anything formal nowadays is to brand it as very bad. But do we know that a short interesting presentation of how bees carry pollen would not be of value and interest to pupils?

2. "Materials for pupils from 9 to 15 years of age should be presented in small units." Are we then to go back to short daily assignments?

3. "One must bear in mind the baneful influences that attend the use of vertical word lists." Those of us who grew up with them wonder just how baneful they are.

4. "The central aim in teaching history, that of reseeing and reliving past times and situations, can be more nearly realized through dramatization than through any other device." One wonders here whether the proponents of other teaching devices will agree with us.

These quotations from textbooks indicate that often statements of advice

may be good; sometimes, no doubt, they are faulty; certainly they should be tested before they are widely accepted.

But in spite of the fact that method or technique is the teacher's tool for getting her work done, and that upon the effectiveness of that tool depends the effectiveness of classroom work, relatively few experimental studies of techniques of teaching are reported in lists of research studies. In Monroe's Ten Years of Educational Research the statement is made that among 467 articles analyzed in the Journal of Educational Research, only 72, or about 15 per cent, qualified as experimental investigations of methods of teaching. Recently an attempt was made to list experimental studies of techniques in teaching history. Many sources were investigated—bibliographies, yearbooks, indexes. Many interesting articles were found on how to make history assignments, how to use current materials, how to direct history study, and the like; but very few experimental studies were uncovered to show which types of assignments are best for history, whether narrative or exposition form of presentation is best, whether vocabulary drills influence pupils' understanding of history material. And yet these are questions which all those who teach history would be interested in having answered. Even a list of 200 references on techniques of history teaching showed fewer than 30 experimental studies calculated to measure the effectiveness of methods of instruction which we complacently accept and use.

This field of testing the effectiveness of method is one in which teachers are interested and in which they can serve. It is a difficult field because of the problems involved in controlling all the factors in the situation so as actually to measure the method or the process which is under scrutiny. I knew one very promising study which failed not long ago, because all the factors of the experiment were not carefully examined. In this experiment a teacher was interested in finding out which was better—to give a list of 10 or more questions as a guide to pupils in studying the history lesson, or to have them make an outline of the lesson as they studied. Two groups of pupils of fairly similar ability and training were used in the experiment, one group using the question assignment and the other making the outlines. Both groups had had training in both forms of study. After a period of trial a test was to be given, both groups taking the same test. So far all the factors seemed to have been controlled. But the test which was given was a question test, and the group which had been concentrating on the question type of study far outshone the outline-

study group. The unfair factor here was the form of test which favored one group. It had the same effect on the final score as the butcher's hand on the scales would make on the meat bill.

But in spite of all the difficulties the experimental testing of methods is a field which may be made to yield much to the improvement of classroom procedure. Which is better—long or short daily assignments? Which shall primary teachers use—script or print? Shall English teachers have a required reading list or a recommended list? Does an open-book discussion lesson in science yield better results than an individual study period? Is it wise to allow pupils to progress as rapidly as they can in algebra or should some attempt at group work be maintained for drill purposes? These are some of the puzzling questions which classroom teachers can help to answer.

Study of Curriculum Materials

Another similar field is the experimental testing of curriculum materials. In no field of education is more progress being made by all schools than in this one of determining curriculum objectives, selecting materials, and developing learning exercises in those materials. Nearly all subjects and all grades have had attention centered on them in nation-wide experiments with course-of-study materials. Interesting, fresh, informational selections are now put side by side with good stories in the readers; vital new materials are included in social problems courses; science takes on added interest, and charm, and practicality. Courses of study swell in size and textbooks multiply in number. From this wealth of new materials someone must help us select the best; someone must show us the best ways of organizing and presenting it; in some way we must discover to which ages and abilities the various units appropriately belong. Shall informational material about taxation, insurance, and bonds be read when the skills in computing taxes, insurance, and dividends are being mastered, or shall attention be focused only on the skills? Are health ideals better taught with narrative material than with informational presentations? Careful classroom experiments could help to answer these questions.

Care must be taken here as in the other experimental studies to watch all the elements of the experiment. I once knew an experiment in curriculum building to fail because all these elements were not watched. A teacher of literature had determined to include in her literature course of study the selections which her pupils liked best. To do that she occasionally had several pupils read selected stories aloud. The class then voted on the best two or three, and these were listed as stories of first rank. This went on for

some time until one day a pupil innocently remarked, "I think I would have liked the first story best if I could have heard it, but I didn't understand all of it." The element that slipped in here and spoiled an attempt to measure the comparative value of different units of curriculum materials was the differing effectiveness of presentation of units. A good story through the voice of a poor reader gave the impression of being a poor story. But if care is used, no one can do more in the work of testing and adapting these new curriculum materials than the teacher, who is at the point where materials and learners meet.

Case Studies of Pupils' Behavior

Still a fourth field in which classroom teachers can contribute is that of case studies of pupils' social and educational behavior. Since the term "case studies" has a very scientific, technical implication because of its association with the medical and legal professions, we may be surprised to find any case studies as human as Symond's study of high-school pupils' study habits, in which he carefully observed and recorded the behavior of a single pupil throughout an entire study period. It seems probable that from similar studies of what pupils of different ages do while they study we might discover something about what kinds of assignments to make, what kinds of directions to give, how long the study periods should be, and so on.

Another kind of case study is that in which educational difficulties are diagnosed and remedies provided. Such reports as W. S. Gray's diagnostic and remedial case studies in reading, and Monroe's studies of the reading difficulties of high-school pupils who are failing in their classroom work, are valuable as guides both in the important business of critically examining the products of our work and in formulating new ways of meeting troublesome teaching situations.

Such studies emphasize again the necessity of the teacher's critical, but sympathetic understanding of her pupils' complex backgrounds. Case studies of pupils' activities in attacking new skills, showing periods of intense activity and occasional floundering; observations of pupils attempting to locate an item in a reference book; studies of some difficult pupil's reaction to different kinds of jobs or to different persons; detailed studies of a foreigner's difficulties in learning to speak English; a series of studies of pupils' infractions of school regulations; these and many others are possible as part of classroom procedure; and as such case records accumulate, we will in time acquire a body of information which will give new interest to the study of individual differences and new ways of providing for them.

Retesting Research in the Classroom

Another field of service in research—though not a separate type of research study—is in retesting, or applying in the classroom, the results of experiments which have been originally performed in the laboratory or under other than normal classroom conditions. All educational research has for its fundamental purpose the determination of what to do in educating pupils better. Laboratory experimentation may discover principles and procedures, but their final acceptance will depend upon successfully passing the test of classroom use. The teacher who carefully repeats another's experiment in which she is interested, and compares her findings with those of the original experimenter, is in a position to contribute very greatly to the reliability of the study's results. Monroe reports more than 3,600 research studies completed during the 10-year period of 1918-1927. The Office of Education is now compiling a list of some 3,000 research studies reported as having been completed during the past school year. No doubt many of these have results of real significance to teachers and pupils. Very likely new materials, new methods, new principles, are to be found among these 3,000 new studies. But the findings of many of them will be conclusive only when they have been retested in the classroom teacher's laboratory. The remark has sometimes been made by research workers in science fields that experimenters in education need not be concerned about the accuracy of their experiments because they are never checked, since everyone is busily experimenting with new problems instead of verifying possible solutions of completed experiments. In science this criticism is not true. There results and solutions are tentative until new and perhaps better results and solutions are found. Research in education will have a better reputation and be of more practical value when it includes much testing and retesting of its results. Since its results are to be used in the classroom, the teacher is of immense service in the proving ground of educational experiments.

Here, then, is another field for service in which classroom teachers can have a part. It is not the function of this article to outline methods and cautions, but only to indicate types of research in which teachers seem particularly able to participate. In analyzing and organizing the steps in a learning situation; in testing the effectiveness of methods of teaching; in evaluating new units of curriculum materials; in making case studies of pupils' performances; and in retesting reported experiments of other workers the classroom teacher has open to her a wide and important field as a research worker.

What New York City Teachers Do for Schools During Their Leisure Moments

As One Whose Career is Devoted to Training of Youth, the Teacher is Never Free from Responsibility. This Tinctures All His Life. School Hours are Crowded with Detail. Outside the School Preparation Must be Made for Actual Work of Teaching, for Self-Improvement, and for Participation with Others in Activities Actuated by the One Purpose of Inspiring in Pupils the Highest Ideals

By SAMUEL P. ABELOW

Instructor of History, Julia Richman High School, New York City

MARK TWAIN, the great American humorist, about 50 years ago described the schoolmaster of that day in the following words:

"Vacation was approaching. The schoolmaster, always severe, grew severer and more exacting than ever, for he wanted the school to make a good showing on examination day. His rod and his ferule were seldom idle now—at least among the smaller pupils. Only the biggest boys, and young ladies of 18 and 20, escaped lashing. Mr. Dobbins' lashings were very vigorous ones, too; for although he carried, under his wig, a perfectly bald and shiny head, he had only reached middle age, and there was no sign of feebleness in his muscle. As the great day approached, all the tyranny that was in him came to the surface; he seemed to take a vindictive pleasure in punishing the least shortcomings. The consequence was that the smaller boys spent their days in terror and suffering, and their nights in plotting revenge. They threw away no opportunity to do the master a mischief. But he kept ahead all the time. The retribution that followed every vengeful success was so sweeping and majestic that the boys always retired from the field badly worsted."

The Attitude To-day is Different

The schoolmaster of to-day deserves a better characterization. Instead of a ferule, he wields a baton that guides the school orchestra through a Wagnerian opera or a Beethoven symphony. Instead of using a rod, he blows a whistle to start the youngsters across the field with their football. Tyrannical conduct has been succeeded by a spirit of helpfulness toward the youngsters.

The teacher of to-day is so engrossed with devising plans for the proper direction of the rising generation that his whole being is suffused with a spiritual aurora borealis. He is more than a pedagogue. He is a civic leader, a diagnostician of mental ailments, an educational nurse, an explorer and discoverer of spiritual poten-

tialities in the embryo genius, a spiritual guide. The teacher's influence extends far beyond the four walls of the classroom. It moves in ever-widening concentric circles into infinity.

Ideals of the Modern Educator

This influence is the result of the new viewpoint of the modern educator. The formal examination, while essential, is not the sine qua non of his existence. The course of study and syllabus are not the end of his ambitions. He is always willing to sacrifice his leisure moments, his pleasures, his personal aggrandizement, for the cause of the new humanity. While the business man is constantly cultivating new companionships for the sake of financial gain, the teacher is devising new contacts for the purpose of arousing the latent capacities of the individual student. His beneficent service can not be measured scientifically; it can not be evaluated in terms of dollars and cents. The community is conscious of it; the teacher is proud of it.

How does the teacher exert his influence? The means are innumerable, employed both inside and outside the classroom. This article will tell briefly what the teacher does for the pupil after school hours, during his leisure moments, during the time when the community has no legal claim on his services.

In the first place, the teacher is always seeking new information about his subject, and the latest and best methods of presenting a good lesson. He is a voracious reader, and books on all subjects—from astronomy to Dante's Divine Comedy—appeal to him. The universities and colleges of a city are filled with teachers. Afternoons, evenings, Saturdays, and sometimes even Sundays, he is busy studying, listening to lectures, doing research work in the libraries, or the museums.

Teachers attend lectures where, perhaps, a new device for teaching arithmetic or spelling is expounded; the I. Q., or the A. Q. interpreted. Or it may be a lesson on more effective use of the globe in teaching astronomical facts; or a lecture on the qualities of modern American poetry. A teacher of drawing takes lessons in astronomy, and a teacher of English spends hours poring over the dictionary in the effort to improve his own vocabulary.

A Multitude of Courses for Teachers

The teacher of New York City demands a multitude of courses, and he gets them. Columbia University, New York University, the College of the City of New York, Hunter College, the Brooklyn Teachers Association, Fordham Univer-



Julia Richman High School girls arrange bazaar for memorial fund

sity, and private instructors attempt to satisfy the varied demands of these teacher-students. During the summer, hundreds of teachers attend universities in all parts of the country. The New York teacher gathers knowledge from all parts of the universe.

What use does the teacher make of this vast accumulation of knowledge? He incorporates it into his daily lessons, and endeavors to inspire his pupils with a thirst for learning. He needs it for his own advancement in the system. It becomes part of his cultural capital.

The community has shown in many ways its appreciation of the teacher's efforts. The system of sabbatical leave has been established, under which a teacher who has served for 10 years or longer is allowed a term's leave for study or rest, with pay, with the proviso that the teacher engage a substitute at his expense. Last year a substantial increase in salary was granted all teachers.

Professional Organizations of Teachers

Teachers are divided into a great many organizations according to their many-sided interests. Some organizations are purely pedagogical; some are professional; some combine the two functions.

The Teachers Council is an illustration of the professional kind. It was organized in 1913, and it has a twofold function: (1) The furnishing of information and reporting of opinions of the teaching staff (principals and teachers) upon questions submitted by the board of education or by the board of superintendents; (2) the introduction of recommendations concerning any problems affecting the welfare of the schools and of the teaching staff.

This council consists of 45 representatives from the voluntary teachers' organizations that are recognized by the board of education. The members watch the school bills discussed in the State legislature, and approve or disapprove them. They suggest improvements in the administration of the schools, in the courses of study, and in the establishment of new licenses and new school buildings.

Society for Experimental Study of Education

One of the most important organizations in New York City devoted to the study of pedagogical problems is the New York Society for the Study of Experimental Education. The society meets once or twice a month during the school year, and devotes its sessions to a discussion of current educational problems. The members read papers or deliver addresses on their experiences with various tests, or on original experiments. Every subject of the curriculum is subjected to the acid



School savings bank conducted according to strict business principles

test of scientific investigation. The society also publishes a bulletin and a yearbook which contain technical articles on pedagogical subjects.

The personnel of the educational society consists of superintendents, examiners, principals, high-school teachers, elementary-school teachers, and professors of local universities. That it meets an educational need, its large membership proves.

Other Teachers' Associations

The Brooklyn Teachers Association in its scope combines both professional and pedagogical interests. Besides considering the social and physical welfare of teachers, it maintains an extension department of educational courses.

Other large organizations are the New York High-School Teachers Association, the Interborough Association of Women Teachers, the Teachers Union, and the New York Principals Association. Then there are associations based on specific subject interests; such as elocution science, civics, French, Spanish, stenography, economics.

Teachers Associations Have High Cultural Values

The combined activities of such associations have raised the professional standards of teachers, have improved their economic position, have influenced city authorities to construct wonderful school buildings, and have made working conditions more pleasant both for the teachers and for the million and more children who are entrusted to their care.

The teachers' retirement board enforces the teachers' pension law. This board is, therefore, of vital importance to all teachers in the system and to those on the pension roll. The board consists of several city officials and of 3 teachers elected by the entire teaching staff.

Many of the teachers of New York City possess great histrionic ability, which they utilize for the benefit of pupils. Dramatic performances of all kinds are presented during recitation periods, during assembly periods, or in the evenings in the spacious assembly halls of schools, and sometimes in halls outside of the school building. These evening entertainments are elaborate affairs. During the school year more than 500 dramatic events of one kind or another are presented by school children.

Athletic activities occupy much of the time of teachers: Football in the fall, baseball in the spring, and other games according to the season. A football game between two high schools will attract as many as 25,000 spectators—students, parents, and friends. Preliminary work in preparation for these occasions taxes the time and energy of teachers.

The elementary schools also have their athletic contests.

Promotion of Student Welfare Work

Many pupils are greatly handicapped in their studies because of financial troubles at home. It is often difficult for some children to buy their gymnasium outfits, to get carfare, to buy spectacles when needed. Several schools have established special funds to help these pupils. The Julia Richman High School has a "memorial fund" for this purpose. Money is collected from friends of the school, from pupils, and an annual bazaar to raise money is conducted by the girls under the supervision of the Fund Committee. The bazaar is held in the afternoon in the large corridors of the school from 2.15 to 5 o'clock.

School children are not only interested in their studies, in dramatics, and in athletics, but many of them have a strong

craving for music, especially instrumental music. Consequently, every high school has its orchestra; many junior high schools and elementary schools, too, have orchestras. Members of these orchestras practice from two to three hours a week after school.

Among major extracurricular activities should be mentioned the school bank and school publications—the magazine, the weekly, and special papers. These activities demand part of the teacher's leisure time. Each high school has also its French Club, Latin Club, Civics Club, Current Events Club, etc.

Social Occasions Enjoyed by Teachers

Teachers indulge occasionally in social affairs. They have developed the commendable practice of feasting their superior officers—principals, superintendents, and members of the board of education.

These affairs are elaborate events. At a banquet which the writer organized several years ago in honor of a member of the board of education more than 2,000 persons were present. The appointment of a principal, the promotion of a principal to a superintendency, the completion of a long period of service, even the transfer of a teacher from one school to another, are utilized as occasions for the expression of this spirit of good fellowship.

All these things prove that the world has moved forward in the half century since the publication of "Tom Sawyer."

Most New York Teachers Altruistic

New York school teachers are usually very unselfish and helpful public servants. They are not only devoted to the intellectual, physical, and moral development of their pupils, but they seek to stimulate the democratic aspirations of young America. Dr. William J. O'Shea, speaking before a gathering of parents and teachers, said of the school system:

To me it is like a great river, flowing through a wide valley, bringing down from the hilltops great riches for the fertilization of the land. * * * So the school system works on, day and night, all through the year, in all seasons, doing its work in accordance with the most enlightened ideals of education, which are carried out as successfully as possible considering the size and complexity of the system.

Then, addressing parents specifically, he added:

Your interests and ours are the same. You live for your children. You serve them until you die. We live for them and serve them, too. Between you, and the teaching and supervising staff there should be always a most helpful understanding.



Eighty-two per cent of the teachers in the Province of Saskatchewan, Canada, are serving in rural or village schools. To meet this situation a rural education branch has been created in the department of education, and a director and an assistant director of rural education have been appointed by the minister of education.

Educational Institutions for Blind in Nagasaki Consular District

Training of Blind, Formerly Largely Controlled by Guilds of the Blind, Now Supported or Sponsored by Local Authorities. Though Range in Choice of Occupations is Limited, Many Become Self-Supporting, and Even Maintain Families

By HENRY B. HITCHCOCK,
American Consul, Nagasaki, Japan

THE SOMEWHAT haphazard education of the blind usual in former times in Japan has gradually given place to systems of education based on the wide experience of occidental nations in this sphere. Where in the past guilds of the blind were paramount in the training and control of their members, there are now in practically every prefecture one or more schools supported by the prefecture, or financially assisted by it, which are conducted on modern principles for the education of the blind.

A questionnaire seeking information concerning institutions for the education of the blind in the Nagasaki consular district was recently sent by this consulate to all such institutions in the district (10 in number) and elicited replies from 7. The information received indicates that the trades, or professions, taught the blind have changed but little from those taught in ancient times in Japan.

Vocational Training for the Blind

In former times the occupations of masseur and, at times, of musician were reserved exclusively for the blind, since they involved work which it was thought the blind could do quite as well, and possibly better, than the seeing.

The principal occupations taught the blind at present are massage, acupuncture, and moxibustion. All three of these occupations are considered efficacious in the cure or treatment of disease.

Massage is much the same as that practiced in Occidental countries. It is usually not so vigorous as that given by professional masseurs in the United States, but is more of a slow-kneading process. Occasionally a brisk tapping over a localized pain, or firm pressure applied repeatedly to nerve centers, is used in treating muscular soreness or nervous disorders.

Acupuncture is the treatment of disease with fine needles which are thrust into the flesh from one-half to 6 or 7 inches deep.

Moxibustion is the treatment of disease by the burning of small quantities of dried leaves of the moxa (mugwort) at certain places on the skin. None of these occupations are now reserved exclusively for the blind. Consequently earnings of blind

practitioners decrease as people with normal sight enter the field as competitors.

At present acupuncture is very much in favor among the middle and lower classes, and the blind who are skilled in the operation of it find it the most profitable profession open to them.

Most of the schools content themselves with giving instruction in the traditional occupations of acupuncture, moxibustion, massage, shampoo, and music (biwa, koto, and samisen); but one school replying to the questionnaire has undertaken to place the blind in other occupations. Students are sent as apprentices in household industries, where they are taught such trades as the making of straw rope and straw matting.

More Men Than Women Among the Blind

Among the blind there is a slightly larger percentage of men. The seven institutions from which replies were received reported a total of 10,236 pupils—5,170 male and 5,066 female. Average monthly earnings ranged from yen 35 to yen 80; mean yen 55. The earning capacity of the men is in general slightly greater than that of the women. While the monthly incomes are below the general average, they are sufficient to maintain life in a fair degree of comfort.

No Homes for the Blind

Schools are nearly all day schools, which means that the blind must provide for themselves outside of school. Where families of the students are very poor, usually some financial assistance is given by the authority maintaining the school.

While persons in direct charge of the schools seem to be enthusiastic in the work of educating the blind, it is not so easy, relatively speaking, to obtain funds from private or official sources as in the United States. The general population itself is none too far removed from the poverty line, and few families feel that they can spare even a little for charity from the funds earned by their bread-winners.

Owing to the traditional favoring of the blind in certain occupations, however, it is possible in Japan for the blind to become self-supporting in numbers as large relatively as in most countries of the world; and, in not a few cases, to become able to support families as well.

Detroit's School System Aims to Enroll 100 Per Cent¹ of Its School Population

First of a Series of Articles Describing Administration, Organization, Housing, Equipment, and Instructional Provisions Set up in Representative Systems for the Education of the Handicapped

By KATHERINE M. COOK

Chief, Division of Special Problems, Office of Education

THE KNOWLEDGE that there are large numbers of children, roughly estimated at from 5 to 7 per cent of the school population, with physical and mental handicaps which disqualify them for full development of their possibilities in the regular school classes, but who under right conditions are distinctly educable, is not new in American education. Scientific segregation of such children into groups for class work which insures their intelligent care and at the same time insures noninterference with the regular school program of normal children is engaging the attention and study of those responsible for the maintenance of democratic school systems. Recent reorganization in the Office of Education contemplates the establishment of a systematic service to school systems of the type usually rendered by the office in the furtherance of the education of children who, because of various kinds of handicaps, deviate from the normal. This article is the first of a contemplated series which will describe administrative organization, housing, equipment, and instructional provisions, set up in representative systems for the education of the handicapped. The account of the Detroit system begun in this article, will be concluded in the June number of *SCHOOL LIFE*.

Early Recognition of the Problem

Detroit was among the cities which early recognized the need of providing through special classes for deviates from the normal or average child intellectually. The first special class established in the city was one for mentally subnormal children in 1903, with an enrollment of 15. As in most school systems at that early period, these children were considered merely backward and in need of special attention. It was believed that they could, as a result of such attention, be restored to the regular grades. From this small beginning the present efficient

and highly developed organization for the administration of special education has evolved. It is responsible for the selection and education of all pupils in the public schools, or eligible to enter the public schools, who deviate either physically or mentally from type to such an extent that they can not with justice to themselves or others be educated wholly in the regular grades.

Prevention and Elimination of Handicaps Stressed

While the main objective of the department is to provide handicapped children, as far as possible, with the opportunity to develop their possibilities to the utmost and at the same time relieve the regular grades of those who are hindering the progress of typical children, there are other important objectives. The department assumes responsibility also for acquainting the regular teachers, supervisors, administrators, and the general public with the causes that make for the crippling of school children in mind and body; of the fact that it costs more, and in many cases much more, to educate the handicapped than the typical child; and that the results are never wholly satisfactory. Considerable stress is, therefore, placed upon preventable causes of handicaps and the necessity of removing those that can be eliminated.

Detection of Possible Future Offenders

A third objective of the department of special education is the detection of those

cases which are destined, even under the most favorable conditions that as yet prevail in the public schools, to become a menace to society because of inferior mentality or emotional instability, complicated by unfavorable environment. It is believed possible to detect at least a large percentage of the cases which may later become offenders against the law while tendencies are incipient and can be redirected through change of environment and the right kind of care and education.

Door of the Special Class Should "Swing Both Ways"

Certain policies of the department seem worthy of special consideration: (1) That the door of the special class should "swing both ways," making admission into the class easy for those who stand in need of special instruction, and return to the regular grades just as easy for those who are able to profit by the instruction and from contacts with typical children. This policy means the fostering of close cooperation between the special-class teachers and the regular-grade teachers; it presupposes a thorough understanding of the fact that the special class belongs to the school in which it is placed and is under the supervision of the principal as well as under that of the special supervisor. The policy helps regular grade teachers to appreciate the importance of giving to each child the different type of training or instruction suited to his needs. It also overcomes most of the objections of parents to special classes, since they are



Oakman School for Crippled Children, Detroit, Mich.

¹ When the American public schools passed the point of educating the 10 per cent of our people needed for leadership, they thereby committed themselves to providing educational facilities for a full 100 per cent of the school population. There is no other satisfactory stopping place.—William John Cooper.



Shopwork for mentally handicapped boys

convinced that their children will be returned to the regular grades if and when they are able to do the work of these grades. In the case of seriously handicapped children—those suffering from defects that can not be removed—special (segregated) schools apart from the regular schools also have their place, and for these the purpose of instruction becomes more directly preparation for life rather than preparation for further education in the regular grades.

Early Segregation Necessary for Ultimate Efficiency

(2) That handicapped children be placed in special classes as soon as possible after the beginning of their school career. Early segregation reduces the number who are discouraged through repeated failure and permits of earlier differentiation between those who may profitably be returned to regular classes and those who should probably complete their education in special classes or schools. In this early segregation or differentiation—could it be fully accomplished—lies perhaps the possibility of ultimate efficiency of the special classes to educate the handicapped for social efficiency and economic independence. Under present arrangements, as indicated later, the aim is to detect and segregate children needing special education at or immediately following their entrance to school. Original entrants are examined and segregated during their first year at school, generally at 6 years of age. Children coming in from other systems or entering at a more advanced age may, of course, be delayed in assignment to the special classes.

Interesting Experiment Now in Progress

An interesting experiment is now in progress in the establishment of a pre-

school or nursery class in one of the special schools for subnormal children located in one of the less favorable sections, economically and environmentally, of the city. The school is in a sense an adjunct to, and is financed in part by, the Merrill Palmer School, but is under the supervision and direction of the department of special education. It is expected through its services to reach at an early age children from homes and from an environment now recruiting the subnormal classes in the school to which it is attached.

(3) That emphasis is constantly on possibilities for achievement. Segregation of the seriously handicapped—to the extent of eliminating unfavorable competition with normal children when the handicaps are of a type that can not be remedied or overcome—is believed to promote success in carrying out this policy.

Administrative Organization for Education of Special Problem Children

The work of special education is organized under two main coordinate divisions, the psychological clinic, with a clinical psychologist in charge, and the special education department, with a director of special education in charge. These two divisions were combined under one director of special education until June, 1929, when a reorganization was effected, which resulted in two coordinate divisions which together are responsible for the functions concerned with the education of all types of handicapped children.

The psychological clinic assumes an important part in the selection of all types of children for special education, in participating in consultation as to their placement in school classes, and through its

social-service section, for maintaining intimate relationship to all phases of social work in the city. Psychological diagnosis and educational and social guidance and counseling are its chief functions. The staff includes, besides the clinical physician in charge, individual and group mental examiners, field workers, including social workers, an examining physician, and a clerical staff. Coordination of the work of the staff of the clinic and that of the supervisory and instructional staff is accomplished through cooperative direction of effort, group, individual staff conferences, and consultation.

Diagnoses Before Assignment

Differentiation and assignment to special classes are made only after careful diagnoses—psychological, social, and educational. The significance of such diagnoses to the educational welfare of mentally retarded and subnormal children is of special moment. The temptation on the part of teachers to avoid difficult and unpleasant situations by assigning problem children to special classes indiscriminately; the frequent insistence of parents on the usual type of academic training for their children regardless of their limitations—are well known. Intelligent diagnosis as a basis of assignment should eliminate a high percentage of errors in placement of children according to needs.

Entering First-Grade Pupils Examined

The group testing staff of the clinic examines all entering first-grade pupils for differentiated classification into high, medium, and low groups (known as X, Y, and Z groups); and overage and backward pupils in all schools. It examines, also, members of all graduating classes; sixth-grade candidates for intermediate schools; and all new teachers and clerks. Some schools are assisted in classifying all their pupils by means of tests, and pupils participating in experiments in the educational research department are tested to select proper control groups.

Reexamination as Often as Once in Two Years

The psychological clinic has developed its own group of intelligence tests for practically all types of mental examinations. Reexamination of mentally retarded children is undertaken as often as once in two years. All special-class children are reexamined at the time they leave school. Examinations are conducted chiefly in the schools, but many problem cases from schools and social agencies are examined at the central clinic at the offices of the department. Group testing precedes the scheduled individual testing as an economical means of preliminary selection. Among the individual tests used are the Stanford-Binet, the Herring

revision of the Binet, and the Pintner Performance Tests. Many others, used as occasion arises, include the Porteus Maze Tests, the Matthews Questionnaire (Whittier), and various tests which have developed in the Detroit Psychological Clinic.

Complete History of Child Reported

In addition to reporting mental age, a detailed report of the mental, educational, and social disabilities of each pupil referred for examination is furnished to the schools by the psychological clinic. The social-service department writes a complete personal, family, and school history of each pupil tested by the individual method. The clinic physician examines for sensory defects. Complete physical examinations are secured through the outpatient departments of the various hospitals, the family physician of the subject, or the school physician.

Staff and Types of Classes

The director of special education, with nine supervisors, assistant supervisors, and supervising principals, is charged primarily with the administration and supervision of all the different types of special schools and classes, and with the advice and counsel of the psychological clinic, with selection of children for special classes and their assignments to their respective places. Special classes are of the following types: Special A and special B classes for the mentally subnormal (classification according to age); special preparatory classes for the retarded; ungraded classes for the truant and delinquent; Braille and sight-saving classes for the blind and partially sighted; a special school for the deaf and lip-reading classes for the deaf and hard of hearing; special schools and classes for cripples who are so seriously handicapped as to need transportation to school by bus; open-air schools and open-window classes for the anemic, tubercular, and cardiopathic; and speech-improvement classes for children with different types of speech defects.

City System Reimbursed From State Funds

The total enrollment in special schools and classes for September, 1928, was 17,599, or approximately 12 per cent of the total registration in the first six elementary grades and kindergarten. Twenty-four special schools and 283 special classes in selected elementary school centers accommodate the majority of these children. A few are educated in convalescent homes, in hospitals, and at their own homes. The teaching staff for the same year (1928-29) numbered 390 with 43 matrons and attendants. According to the terms of the Michigan statutes,

the city system is reimbursed from State funds for expenses involved in the education of crippled children over and above the cost of educating normal children.

Department Approves Special Buildings

Apropos of the maintenance of special schools in which handicapped children are segregated from normal children, a circular recently issued by the department of special education contains the following statement: "The department is gradually moving in the direction of providing special buildings for the majority of types of special classes. It is planned to secure over a period of years additional small buildings where special B ungraded classes and some special A classes can be cared for. The buildings are to be located with reference to the homes of the pupils concerned and to convenient transportation. Considerable effort is expended in getting pupils settled in a special class. It is desirable to avoid the necessity of going through this process because of frequent movements of the class."

"Clearing" rooms are maintained in 15 centers for troublesome cases in regular classes which need immediate adjustment. The children are kept in these rooms only until the psychological clinic can investigate and recommend the proper school adjustment.

Problem to Secure Capable Teachers for Special Classes

Securing capable teachers for the special classes is a problem of moment in all systems in which special education is established. Indeed it is so serious a problem as to delay inauguration of special classes and seriously hamper their success when established in many school systems. Detroit aims to place

the special classes in charge of superior, specially trained, and experienced teachers.

Teachers are selected as carefully as may be, usually from the regular force, by supervisors and principals. They are selected because of special aptitude and personality qualifications, and a substantial bonus augmenting the regular salary is provided. Courses designed for training teachers for special class work and inservice training are offered in the Detroit Teachers College with the cooperation of the department of special education. As in other States, the regular State teacher-preparing institutions train for special-class teaching also.

Special-Class Teacher Has Twofold Function

All teachers in the department of special education have had previous successful experience in regular grade work and in addition have had special training for the particular work to which assigned. Since large numbers of pupils in special classes are returned to the regular grades as soon as their defects are corrected, it is believed of vital importance that the special class teacher be familiar with the methods, subject matter, and standards of instruction in the regular grade. Every teacher in the department of special education is believed to have a twofold function, one to remove the handicap and return the child to the regular grade to compete on equal terms with the typical child when that is possible, the other to give the child with an insurmountable handicap the type of training and instruction which will enable him to become a useful member of society on leaving the special class or school.

(To be concluded in June number of *SCHOOL LIFE*)



"Special" sewing class for mentally handicapped girls

SCHOOL LIFE

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Acting Editor HENRY R. EVANS

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MAY, 1930

The Apotheosis of Hans Christian Andersen

Hans Christian Andersen, the famous author of fairy tales, will not soon be forgotten in his native land of Denmark. The one-hundred and twenty-fifth anniversary of his birth was celebrated on April 2, 1930, with tremendous enthusiasm. Seventy thousand school children in Copenhagen participated in the festivities. Tableaux of Andersen's stories were given by pupils of the various schools, after which the small actors marched in procession through the flag-decorated streets to the town hall square where they were reviewed by the civic authorities.

Hans Christian Andersen was born in Odense, on the island of Funen, Denmark, on April 2, 1805, in a mean little house, which is now the property of the municipality and converted into a memorial of the poet and story-writer. His father was a shoemaker in humble circumstances, but possessed of a "richly gifted and truly poetic mind." Hans Christian Andersen in appearance was tall, ungainly, and homely; but his face shone with kindness and good nature. He was indeed the ugly duckling that became a swan. In 1819 he went to Copenhagen, where he began his career as a chorus singer in the Royal Theatre. His poem, the Dying Child, attracted the attention of King Frederick VI, who sent him for some years, free of charge, to the famous grammar school at Slagelse. Andersen proved a rather backward pupil, and did not graduate until 1827. In 1833, having received a traveling stipend from the King, he visited France and Italy. On his return home, early in 1835, he produced his charming novel of Italian life, *The Improvisatore*. A few months later he published the first part of his immortal Wonder Stories, and the world came to recognize in him the greatest of writers for children—the fairy-story teller par excellence. He died on August 4, 1875, in the house called Rolighed, near Copenhagen.

Andersen's stories for children comprise folklore tales, fairy tales, and little pictures torn from the book of life. There is

a peculiar quality about them that distinguishes them from all other efforts of the kind; they are symbolical and ethical; full of quaint shrewdness; and with a delightful vein of satire running through them that makes them excellent reading for "grown-ups." Many of them are humorous and diverting, others full of pathos and deep religious sentiment, while others are highly fantastic and imaginative. All of them are expressive of a deep love of humanity, and a keen appreciation of the glories of nature. Who can forget the Ugly Duckling; Everything in its Right Place, a good lesson for the newly rich and arrogant; The Wind's Tale, the story of an alchemist who impoverishes himself and family; The Emperor's New Clothes, a lesson for sycophants; The Steadfast Tin Soldier, beloved by little children; Under the Willow Tree; The Goloshes of Fortune, a weird story of life and death; The Flying Trunk; The Snow Queen; The Swineherd, in which a young prince, disgusted with his inamorata, goes back "into his own little kingdom and shuts and locks the door"; and last but not least the beautiful Psyche, a tale of a young sculptor who abandons his art to enter a Franciscan monastery.

Judging from the foregoing, the fairy story still holds the imagination of children, and is not doomed to extinction. But we are living in an age of science and are revising our views of child psychology. In place of the traditional bedtime stories, in which birds, animals, and flowers talk like human beings, child experts are in favor of tales designed to give young children significant facts of everyday life. In fact, children of a certain age demand such true presentations and look, with more or less disfavor, on the fairy story.

But there is a time for all things, as Solomon the wise said. In the life of the child there is a time to play, to personify nature, to dream, to revel in the make-believe as if it were reality. The glory soon fades as the child grows up, but the poetical impress is made upon the plastic mind and the field of imagination richly cultivated and not left a barren waste. The transition from the fairy-tale period to the concrete fact stage is gradually and naturally made.



Junior College Journal

It is with pleasure that *SCHOOL LIFE* welcomes into the field of educational journalism a new aspirant for pedagogical honors, namely, the Junior College Journal, the first number of which will be issued in October, 1930, by the Stanford University Press. It will be under the joint editorial control of the American Association of Junior Colleges and the school of education of Stanford University.

The new journal will appear monthly with the exception of the summer months.

Although there are more than 400 junior colleges in the United States, with an enrollment of approximately 60,000 students, there has been hitherto no periodical devoted especially to their interests.

Dr. Walter C. Eells, of the Stanford University School of Education, will be editor in chief of the new periodical, with Doak S. Campbell, of Nashville, Tenn., secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, as associate editor. A national editorial advisory board of 20 educators will include the members of the executive committee of the American Association of Junior Colleges, and other men who are recognized as national leaders in the organization and development of the junior college movement.



Noted British Educator Visits America

The recent visit to this country of Sir Michael Sadler, master of University College, Oxford, to deliver the Julius and Rosa Sachs Foundation lectures for 1930 on secondary education at Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, on March 26, 27, and 28, was an event in the educational world. He was introduced to a distinguished audience, on the occasion of his initial lecture, by Dr. William John Cooper, Commissioner of Education of the United States. Sir Michael emphasized the work accomplished in this country in building up secondary education. "The new American high schools," he remarked, "struck the imagination of the world." "The United States," he said, "more than any other nation, has given drive and momentum to the new trend of educational thought and administration." Incidentally, he spoke of Dr. William T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, 1889-1906, as "one who has led the way in a systematic effort to present, through official documents, a picture of contemporary education."

Sir Michael found time during his brief stay in this country to visit Washington, D. C., and Philadelphia. While in Washington, he called upon Secretary of the Interior Ray Lyman Wilbur, Commissioner of Education William John Cooper, and other governmental officers. He made a pilgrimage to Mount Vernon and laid a wreath on the tomb of Washington. At the University of Pennsylvania he delivered a lecture on "An Englishman's thoughts on the service of American education to the world." He embarked for England on April 12.

This was Sir Michael Sadler's third visit to the United States, his two previous visits being in 1891 and 1903.

American education is fortunate in engaging the interest of so outstanding a leader in English education. Within the period of his long service he has been a member of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education, director of special inquiries and reports in the Education Department, chairman of the Teachers' Registration Council, and president of the Calcutta University Commission. Sir Michael is a prolific writer on educational subjects; his published books deal with education on all levels, from kindergarten to the university, and in all quarters, from India to the United States.—*Carl A. Jessen.*

Recent Publications of the Office of Education

The following publications have been issued recently by the Office of Education of the United States Department of the Interior. Orders for them should be sent to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., accompanied by the price indicated:

Legal education, 1925-1928. Alfred Z. Reed. (Bulletin 1929, No. 31.) 5 cents.

Bibliography of research studies in education, 1927-28. (Bulletin, 1929, No. 36.) 25 cents.

Statistics of universities, colleges, and professional schools, 1927-28. (Bulletin 1929, No. 38.) 30 cents.

The camp in higher education. Marie M. Ready. (Pamphlet No. 1.) 10 cents.

The organized recess. Marie M. Ready. (Pamphlet No. 2.) 5 cents.

Sanitation of schools. James F. Rogers. (Leaflet No. 1.) 5 cents.

Mimeographed circulars issued free upon request from the Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.:

Mimeographed Circular, No. 6, Financial support of colleges and universities, 1927-28. Walter J. Greenleaf.

Mimeographed Circular, No. 7, State-wide trends in school hygiene and physical education as indicated by laws, regulations, and courses of study. J. F. Rogers.

Mimeographed Circular, No. 9. An annotated bibliography of studies on consolidation and transportation, 1923-1929. Timon Covert.

Mimeographed Circular, No. 10. Public school attendance ages in the various States. W. W. Keeseker.

Mimeographed Circular, No. 11. Collegiate courses in transportation, 1928. J. O. Malott.

Mimeographed Circular, No. 12. An annotated bibliography of studies pertaining to the county unit of school administration. Timon Covert.—*Mary S. Phillips.*

Brief Items of Foreign Educational News

By BARBARA E. LAMBDIN

Editorial Division, Office of Education

A woman's educational and industrial exhibition was held recently in Chile to illustrate the achievements of women in the home, in education, agriculture, industry, commerce, art, social service, and the professions. The occasion marked the fiftieth anniversary of the admission of women on a parity with men to the University of Chile.

Extension of the "bungalow habit" is cited as an educational problem by school authorities of Hampshire County, England. On land formerly agricultural or open down, homes have been erected for people employed in the industrial centers of Portsmouth, Southampton, Aldershot, and other places, and schools have become a necessity for children in the new residential areas.

As part of an intensive campaign against illiteracy in Guatemala, the Government has decreed the organization of schools in all army posts and barracks, where instruction will be given in the rudiments of education. The movement is receiving popular support, and professional men of the country are actively cooperating in the work.

A teachers' residence has been added to the school plant in each of 17 school districts of Manitoba, Canada. One inspectorial division has 50 teachers' residences, and only 2 of the 23 divisions make no provision of this character for their school teachers. The total number of teachers' residences in the Province, according to latest report, is 353.

League of Nations Library

Approximately 95,000 volumes comprise the library of the League of Nations, one of the most unusual and interesting international collections in the world. It contains (1) books and pamphlets; (2) official Government documents, including all published statistics and official journals; and (3) periodicals, daily papers—a comprehensive collection of judicial, economic, financial, political, and social publications, as well as reference books and publications in many languages. Although the main purpose of the library is to serve the secretariat and the committees of the League of Nations, it is open to outside readers for serious research.

To an American woman, Miss Florence Wilson, who was the chief librarian for the first seven years of the league, belongs much of the credit for the assembling and arrangement of the library. It is at present housed in the Palais des Nations, the office of the secretariat, Geneva. The new library unit, which will form part of an impressive group of buildings now under construction, will be known as the Rockefeller Library.

Funds accumulated from school savings of children in Mexico have been converted, by authorization of the president, into a banking institution. This makes possible establishment of cooperative associations, lending of money at moderate rates of interest to teachers and employees of the department of public education, and the making of loans on mortgages and other securities.

Protecting Children's Health in Venezuela

In accordance with a decree issued by President Perez on September 5, 1929, all Venezuelan children must present a health certificate before being admitted to school. Certificates are issued by physicians employed in the National Sanitary Bureau, State or municipal governments, or by the family physician. Teachers, professors, and directors of institutions of learning will also be subject to this regulation, which applies to private as well as to public schools. Certificates must be renewed each year, or oftener if circumstances so require. Medical, dental, and optical service will be rendered pupils, teachers, and other school personnel without charge.

The decree further provides that all school buildings shall have well-ventilated and well-lighted classrooms whose size shall equal at least 5 cubic meters per pupil. Halls and patios must be adequate for exercise and recreational purposes, and dormitories, dining rooms, and all other features in accordance with accepted hygienic standards.

Collections in university libraries in Great Britain and Ireland total about 9,500,000 volumes, according to a statement of the librarian of the Central Library for Students at University College, London. The libraries contain, in addition, 30,000 manuscripts, 15,250 incunabula, 50,700 books printed prior to 1640, and more than 60,000 sets of periodicals.

The Junior College and the College of Liberal Arts

Southern California Provides Favorable Field for Comparative Study at Junior College and Liberal Arts College, as well as of Status and Future of the Liberal Arts College in a Junior College Environment

By AUBREY DOUGLASS

Head, Department of Education, Claremont Colleges, Claremont, Calif.

THOSE acquainted with the geography of southern California are aware of the thickly settled area comprising Los Angeles and adjacent territory. This district extends southward about 50 miles from the center of the city of Los Angeles, northward almost as far, and eastward approximately 75 miles. Within this territory are (1929-30) 12 public junior colleges, enrolling nearly 8,000 students, and several private junior colleges, whose combined enrollment is small, totaling something over 300 students. (See California School Directory, 1929-30, p. 178ff.)

Some of these public junior colleges have been established for a number of years; others only recently. Two are now experiencing their first school year. Not all the school districts are incorporated in junior-college districts, but these institutions are sufficiently numerous and are so located as to serve the communities of the territory whose limits have been roughly defined in the above paragraph. Recent legislation may hasten the time when all the smaller districts now without junior-college districts will be incorporated.

Defining Scope of the Argument

This section of territory also contains several 4-year colleges of the liberal-arts type. Students of educational administration have anticipated that growth of the junior college will be accompanied by decreased enrollment in 4-year colleges. As a matter of fact, they expect the junior college to assume to a very considerable extent the function of the liberal-arts college. As this occurs, they look for some of the liberal-arts colleges to go out of existence, others to modify their purpose, and others to survive because they make a distinct contribution to educational progress. The section of southern California delimited above is perhaps the best in the United States in which to investigate the effect of the junior college upon the liberal-arts college, and it is this problem which is treated in this paper.

We have long known that patronage will be given to a conveniently located educational institution; similarly, we

have long been aware of the fact that the item of expense counts heavily when young people are making plans to continue their education. The first public high schools were set up, not so much because the academies were failing to provide the type of training sought by their students, as because they were privately supported and because young people had to be away from their parents and at considerable expense in order to obtain an education. It is a matter of history that the high school contended with the academy to become the leading institution of secondary education in this country, and that it finally won. The slightest acquaintance with the junior-college movement is sufficient to make evident the similarity between arguments advanced to support the case of a proposed junior college, and the causes which motivated establishment of the first high schools.

Transition Period in College Attendance

Perhaps it is still too soon to determine definitely whether or not the anticipations of leaders in the junior-college movement will be realized in southern California; namely, that there will be lessening of patronage to 4-year colleges and large enrollments in junior colleges. There seem to be indications, however, that such will be the case.

A Study of College Enrollment, 1922-1930

In his annual investigation of the colleges of the Nation, Raymond W. ... found that the rate of increase for 216

colleges and universities was, in 1928-29, but 2 per cent over the preceding yearly registration, in comparison with a 25 per cent increase for 1922-1927, or an average yearly increase of 5 per cent. Nearly half of the 216 institutions showed an actual decrease in 1928-29 in comparison with the preceding year. This was felt particularly by the smaller schools. (School and Society, 28: 737-746, 1928; 30: 793-802, 1929.)

Smaller Colleges Sustain Heaviest Losses

In the study of conditions for the current school year, the increment was 1½ per cent for full-time students, and 2 per cent for the grand total. The yearly rate of advance for 1929 was slightly below that shown in 1928. The smaller colleges, while again sustaining the heaviest losses, recovered somewhat from losses of the preceding year. In 1928-29 there were 61 instances of losses and 54 of gains among these institutions; in 1929-30 the figures were 55 and 63.

In a study of Occidental, Whittier, Redlands, and Pomona colleges, all in southern California, Pettit finds a similar situation. The combined enrollments of these institutions increased steadily until 1927; thereafter they show a very slight decrease. The upper division enrollments have, since 1927, comprised a noticeably larger percentage of the total enrollment. This means fewer freshmen; it means also that the junior and senior years have been increased by transfers. Many of these have been from junior colleges. (The Effect of the Public Junior College on the Small Senior Colleges in Southern California, by C. N. Pettit, unpublished, master of arts thesis, Occidental College, 1929.) The situation is shown in Figure 1.

In one respect, Figure 1 does not depict the true situation. The enrollment at Pomona College has for a number of years been limited, and has, therefore, neither increased nor diminished. There have been small variations due to the elimination of students on account of poor

TABLE 1.—Type of institutions to which junior-college students expect to transfer

[Read table thus: In the "A" junior college, 18 certificate students expected to transfer to a liberal arts college, 65 to a university, etc.; C, certificate course; D, diploma course]

Junior college	4-year liberal arts		University		Other type		Undecided		Not continuing		Unsatisfactory reply		Total students			
	C	D	C	D	C	D	C	D	C	D	C	D	C	D	C and D	
A.....	18	2	65	17	24	15	11	5	0	3	26	21	144	63	207	
B.....	16	0	155	71	7	16	8	0	2	0	9	4	107	91	288	
C.....	4	5	104	58	6	9	6	22	3	48	2	1	125	143	268	
D.....	9	7	124	56	11	8	10	5	3	12	2	0	159	88	247	
E.....	9	0	57	4	11	9	0	0	2	0	7	1	86	14	100	
F.....	0	0	49	44	5	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	54	46	100
G.....	20	3	75	24	16	32	11	3	0	3	2	17	124	82	206	
H.....	16	2	38	9	0	5	0	1	2	0	2	0	67	17	84	
I.....	18	4	234	65	27	29	0	0	5	3	4	0	288	101	389	
Total....	110	23	901	348	116	124	46	36	17	69	54	45	1,244	645	1,889	

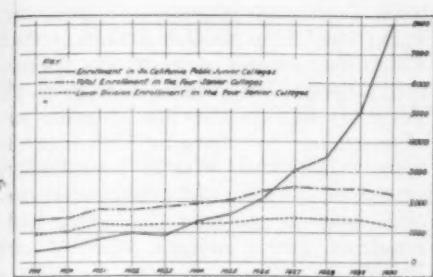


FIGURE 1

scholarship, or for other reasons, for the numbers are not the same each year; on the whole, however, enrollment has been at about the same place for some time. Taking into account this item, it will be seen that the total decrease in enrollment is experienced for the most part by the other three colleges. The relative increase in upper division classes is about the same for the four institutions.

Indications Point to Ascendancy of Junior Colleges

At the time that enrollment was falling off in 4-year institutions in southern California, it was mounting rapidly in the junior colleges. This is due in part to the fact that, when an institution is near, it will attract a larger percentage of those eligible to attend, and in part to the power to draw those students who would have gone elsewhere. Data are not available to show the number of southern California students who have continued their education in a junior college and who could not have done so had such an institution been lacking; but we may be confident that the number is considerable. After studying 8 districts scattered over the State of California, Walter C. Eells concluded that the number of thirteenth and fourteenth year students is more than doubled by the presence of a junior college in the community. (*California Quarterly of Secondary Education*, 1920, 4: 59-69.)

In an investigation of the problem in the North Central Association (*Is the Public College Popularizing Higher Education?* by R. E. Green, *School Executives Magazine*, 49: 70-72, 1929), it was found that about a third of the pupils attending junior colleges would be out of school were it not for the fact that the institution exists in their home town. Public junior colleges and State universities had greater drawing power for the graduates of local high schools than did the liberal-arts colleges.

Pettit studied a number of southern California high-school districts which had established junior colleges. In every case there was a decrease of 30 per cent or more in the freshmen in 4-year liberal-arts colleges following the establishment of a junior college. In every case the local high school had increased in enrollment, and had correspondingly larger graduat-

ing class, a fact which serves to accentuate the situation.

Shortly after 1900 a series of committees of the National Education Association, which were direct outgrowths of the earlier discussions, gave extensive study to the problem of economy of time in education. Their work culminated in a report entitled "Economy of Time in Education" (U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 38, 1913). In the foregoing a provisional time scheme for education was formulated, recommending that the ages 12 to 18 be devoted to secondary education; that ages 18 to 20 or 16 to 20 be given over to college education; and ages 20 to 24 to graduate or professional training. To say that the reorganization of the public schools along junior-college lines recognizes the time scheme of the committee on the economy of time in education, or that the present organization of 4-year institutions with the line of demarcation between lower and upper division work is not essentially different, is to remark that which everyone knows. In considering the probable effect of the development of the junior college upon our 4-year liberal-arts college it is not beside the point, however, to emphasize the fact that in junior-college organization it is assumed that the student will enter upon professional training at the age of 20, or at the end of what is commonly termed the sophomore year. We can expect the 6-4-4 plan to increase rather than diminish this tendency, already strongly in evidence. The final result will probably be a lessened tendency for junior-college graduates to transfer to 4-year liberal-arts institutions, unless they provide some type of specialized training. At present the easiest way to capitalize the specialization afforded by the department of foreign language, music, English, or social science is through teaching. Premedical and similar training offered in some of the science departments make their cases somewhat different. If it is true that the junior colleges, and particularly the 6-4-4 plan, will accentuate the tendency for graduates to enter immediately a professional school, and if the junior colleges absorb a large percentage of the enrollments formerly given to liberal-arts colleges, the result is not far to seek. As time goes on and the junior colleges become better established, students will come into the secondary schools with the idea of remaining at home rather than going elsewhere for their college work. There will be a further decrease in freshman enrollment in liberal-arts colleges.

Students' Plans for Further Education

In order to learn something about the intention of students with respect to their further education, a questionnaire was recently addressed to junior-college students in this vicinity. The chief

results are shown in Table 1 and Figure 2. It will be seen at a glance that the majority of the students expect to continue their education, and that they propose to do so in a university. "Other type" institutions include teachers' colleges and other institutions which provide specialized training. A very small percentage of the students expect to transfer to the liberal-arts colleges. An interesting point not brought out by the table is that women expressed a preference for the liberal-arts college more than twice as frequently as did the men.

A second point of interest is the disposition manifested by the "diploma" students.¹ They expect—or perhaps it is more nearly correct to say they hope—to transfer to one of the established institutions. A larger proportion are undecided as to their future plans, or say that they do not expect to continue in school, than in the certificate group; but the number seems insignificant in comparison with those who expect to go on. This is but another instance of the difficulty in the way of establishing terminal courses in the junior college.

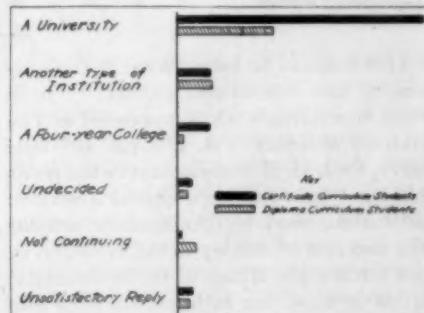


FIGURE 2

As accurately as such replies can be tabulated, Figure 3 shows students' reasons for choosing a higher educational institution. TABLE 2 indicates the professions for which they expect to prepare. They want to enter upon professional training. The convenience of the institution, and the factor of expense are also important items. Their professional ambitions differ little from those of senior high school and other junior-college students. Those callings accorded marked social approval are chosen, with the customary emphasis on engineering and teaching.

There are not a few public-school men who regard the demise of the 4-year liberal-arts college as inevitable. They

¹ "Certificate" students may, upon completion of their course, transfer to the University of California. As high-school students, they made good records. "Diploma" students are enrolled in "terminal" courses which do not parallel the first two years of work at the university. "Diploma" students often present high-school records showing deficient scholarship.

regard this as unfortunate, from the standpoint of the individual institution, but good for the school system in the long run. They see no worthy purpose better served by the 4-year college than by the public junior college, particularly when the organization is after the 6-4-4 plan.

TABLE 2.—Intended occupations of junior college students

Occupation	Men	Women
Agriculture	45	0
Architecture	33	0
Art	5	11
Aviation	24	0
Business	155	89
Chemistry	26	3
Dentistry	29	2
Engineering	243	0
Entomology	7	0
Foreign service	6	2
Forestry	11	0
Geology	7	0
Journalism	26	19
Law	91	3
Library work	0	45
Machinist	6	0
Medicine	44	6
Ministry	6	0
Music	12	27
Nursing	0	12
Pharmacy	6	3
Science	12	5
Social service	3	9
Stage	1	6
Teaching	105	410
Miscellaneous	25	38
Undecided	79	46
Unsatisfactory answers	35	38

This leads us to ask, "What is the purpose of the liberal-arts college?" In a well-known article which appeared in *The Atlantic Monthly* (vol. 139, pp. 497-501, 1927), Prof. G. H. Palmer makes the point that the 4-year college, a typical American institution, produces the amateur scholar who assumes leadership in the social, civic, and intellectual affairs of the community. In his opinion, our colleges will turn into professional schools when the junior-college system becomes complete, and the amateur scholar will disappear. This will be a distinct loss to America. According to another view, the major purpose of the American college is to "create in the student an understanding and appreciation of the principles upon which must be reared that society and that civilization for which the clear in mind and pure in heart are continually striving." (*Principles of Education, Problem 21*, by J. C. Chapman and G. S. Counts.) It will have a highly selected group of students; it must never be vocational; its curriculum must reflect the basic life activities; and the fulfillment of the aim of the college should not be obstructed by the specialization of knowledge.

One may well ask if the 4-year liberal-arts college is essential to this purpose. The question may be put with the assurance of disagreement. On either side of the question, convincing evidence is hard to get. It may not be beside the point to recall that boys entered Harvard, during the early years of the existence of that institution, at the age they now enter the ninth grade. It will scarcely be

denied that, as graduates, they were leaders in the affairs of church and state. From that time to this more and more of the subject matter once regarded as the domain of the college has been given over to the high school. Thus there was a time in the history of the liberal-arts college when its curriculum corresponded essentially to that represented by the last two years of high school and the two junior-college years of the present.

Present Rich Curriculum Delays Completion of College Course

A comparison of the curriculum of junior colleges with past offerings of Pomona College indicates that this period occurred about 40 years ago. Such a comparison is always difficult to make, and can at best be only approximate. Aside from Latin, Greek, and religion, which demanded much time of students in 1889-90, the curriculum of Pomona College in 1889-90 was essentially the same as the academic curriculum of the last two high-school years, and of the junior college. In addition, Pomona supplied a "vocational" curriculum designed for young men and women who desired a practical training. Almost every subject comprising that curriculum is found in the curriculum of, for example, the Pasadena Junior College (grades 11-14). Forty years ago the curriculum of Pomona College had almost the same extent, scope, and purpose of the curriculum of the junior college and of grades 11 and 12.

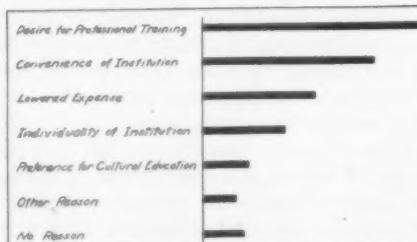


FIGURE 3

It may be urged with some justification that a complete liberal education of today is necessarily more extensive and longer continued than one of 40 years ago, and that the present liberal-arts college supplies this training. Before accepting this view, another consideration should be given due weight. Breadth of interest is aimed at in the lower division of the liberal-arts colleges; in the upper division the student pursues intensively his major interest. In other words, present curriculum organization makes it hard for the last two college years to contribute to the production of an "amateur scholar."

With the establishment of the first public high schools, a period was ushered in similar in many respects to the one we now are in. As remarked above, high school and academy strove with each other for the leading place. The high school won. As it took over the

work of secondary education, the academy found itself in a position similar to that which may shortly confront the liberal-arts college. The academies of 50 to 75 years ago met the situation by going out of existence, by changing into another type of institution, and by modification of purpose. In a thickly populated district, such as southern California, with numerous junior colleges, some of our liberal-arts colleges are going to find it hard to survive; some will doubtless evolve into another type of institution, such as a 2-year or a 3-year school of business; others, particularly those which have something to contribute to the problem of education, will survive. In this connection it is of interest to note that at least 10 small colleges located in the South, Middle West, and West closed their doors in 1929.² Whether or not this is an unusual number it is impossible to say.

Academy is College-Preparatory School Par Excellence

In attempting to foresee the result, it can do no harm to turn again to the academy. Beginning as an institution in which youth were to be taught those things needed to enable them to carry on in the world of affairs, it finally became, and is to-day, the college-preparatory school par excellence. These schools ask for and receive patronage on the basis that they give everything that the public schools give and more. Care is given to health problems, moral training is stressed, individual character is studied, and the best of teachers are provided. No one would claim all this for all private schools; on the other hand, few would be disposed to deny that these characteristics belong to the best private schools.

Perhaps the liberal-arts college of the future will occupy an analogous position. It will be patronized by people who prefer the type of education it gives to that secured in the junior college and university. Campus life, and all it stands for, is a not inconsiderable factor. Many will desire more time for the pursuit of intellectual interests. It is to be hoped that patronage will not depend upon the "social" recognition gained by attending an institution somewhat aristocratic in nature. Such a situation would make more difficult the purpose of the liberal-arts college, that of interpreting the intellectual, moral, and aesthetic contributions of the race in terms of present and future living. It is to be hoped that the movement to reinterpret culture, now found in many colleges, may be encouraged, and that the liberal-arts college will cast aside the narrow conception which prevails in altogether too many institutions.

² Data collected by Alma Cassel, graduate student, Claremont Colleges.

Instruction of Schoolgirls in Child Health and Protection

Study is Inaugurated in Grade 5 A, Continued Through High School, and is a Requirement for Graduation. Pupils Leaving Before Graduation May Continue the Course in a Home Nursing Class

By MARY M. BUCKLEY

Supervisor of Household Arts, Public Schools of Paterson, N. J.

THE little girls look forward to the day when they will be promoted to grade 5 A. In two schools the teacher in the department begins in the third grade the work of building up good health habits. But it is in the fifth grade that the girls enter the home-making unit of the school, and learn through *doing* the things that are foundational. Here they learn the value of clean hands. They are taught how to wash, wipe, and care for the hands.

Credit Given for Home Practice Work

Where possible, the wearing of caps, aprons, and washable dresses is required. All the girls are taught how to wash dishes and clothes and to clean equipment in the kitchen. Some gas stoves at home had never been thoroughly cleaned until after the girl had learned how to do it in school. She does this as a part of her home practice and receives credit in her school work. She learns how to cook simple foods for herself and for younger members of the family. Later she learns how to plan the menu according to family needs and resources. She learns to set the table and is instructed in the elements that make for happy family life. Preparation of breakfast is a sixth-grade project; also the airing and making of a bed and care of a bedroom.

The seventh-grade project uses luncheon and supper as its core. Around this is grouped the special needs of the baby, of little preschool children, and responsibilities of the hostess. They prepare meals for themselves and for the undernourished. In many of the schools the noon luncheon is prepared for the open-window class. This affords daily opportunities to work on food habits and needs. The children have often been the means of encouraging in their homes the use of proper foods, as well as of new foods. Vegetables and their preparation is one of the outstanding units in this grade.

School Projects Influence Home Life

Eighth-grade girls are all interested in the family, in company, and in their own sisters and brothers, as well as in neighbors' children. We use this innate interest in developing project work—the family dinner, the invalid tray for mother, little brother, and the baby. How to wash a sweater, a silk scarf or dress, or underwear.

How to give a party. What does the baby need? The latter is, perhaps, the most popular project the girls have. From the time they begin to realize that there are such lessons, the question is, When are we going to have the baby lessons?

The interest created can be used by a wise teacher throughout the year to emphasize many helpful and valuable lessons. The children look forward to the visit of the baby doll. They name her; they study her clothes, her food, her need for rest, air, and right habits. They learn to wash the woolens and cottons. They have about three lessons before they graduate from the eighth grade.

"Baby Lessons" Always a Popular Subject

High-school girls have the "baby lessons" in the home nursing classes in high school. Every girl must have this unit before she graduates. If a girl is leaving school before she can graduate, she is allowed to enter the home nursing class. The lesson on "bathing the baby" serves as a center around which the other topics are arranged, and work is done intensively because the time is short. We feel, however, that it is worth while and val-

uable. The method followed by our own board of health nurses is used, and we know that we are cooperating and helping in a big field. Sometimes the baby clinic nurse is able to get a real baby and its mother to demonstrate for us. Then we are very happy. Sometimes it is a little girl's sister, and interest is keen and very helpful.

Very often new ideas have been carried home. It may be the fact that the baby should not suck his thumb because it spoils the shape of his mouth, or it may be the care of nipples, or that mother should not suck the bottle to get the milk to flow.

All Work Directed to Practical Ends

The girls take care of children in the home, and if they understand why certain practices are wrong they can help their mothers by substituting good habits for bad habits. The doctrine of clean hands, of clean clothes, clean foods, and clean homes is carried forward. Along with this is the thought that we all have a contribution to make to family and community life, and it is our privilege to make the best contribution that it is within our power to make.



A State supervisor for the deaf and blind has been appointed by the board of education of Wyoming. This is made possible by recent action of the legislature of the State. Before assuming her duties, the new director visited a number of centers in the east where blind and deaf are receiving such service. The department provides education and industrial training for both juvenile and adult blind at home or in institutions maintained by the State.



Demonstration class all ready for the baby's bath

What Does A Parent-Teacher Association Accomplish?

Organization Should Find Out Kinds of Protection and Education Needed and Then Work Whole-Heartedly, With the Help of Other Available Local, State, and National Agencies, to Secure Them

By MARTHA SPRAGUE MASON

First Vice President, National Congress of Parents and Teachers

THE HIGHEST goal of an ideal community is to protect and educate its children. This, also, is the working hypothesis of an ideal parent-teacher association, representing as it does a cross section of the citizens of the community.

It is, generally speaking, the task of the association to find out what kinds of protection and education are needed, and then to work whole-heartedly, with the help of other available local, State and national agencies, to secure them.

An ideal parent-teacher association is not, as is commonly supposed, a group of parents trying to support the school; but a group of parents, teachers, educationists, and other citizens, working together to secure conditions throughout the community which are most favorable for children. While this is not a new educational concept it is one which is effectively carried out in comparatively few communities. A good start has been made, however, and both home and school have taken on a cooperating agency. The school sends education out from the classroom to the home; and the home, for the first time, is considered an educational factor and sits in council with the school.

Goals of an Association Many and Varied

The goals of an association may touch the relationships of family life, health, motion pictures, street safety, adequate play space, sanitary schoolhouses, vocational guidance, the school bus, the well-being of teachers, and dozens of other objectives.

Much has been said and written about the general aims and purposes of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, its organization, methods of work, and national projects. Very little has been written about the actual functioning of a typical parent-teacher association, representative of approximately 20,000 of such groups in the United States.

Although some associations, for any one of a number of reasons, such as isolation, poor leadership, disregard of State and

national helps, or a non-English speaking membership, are not approaching their maximum activity and usefulness, there are thousands of others which are functioning somewhat in the manner which will be described. Even though an ideal association may be pictured in this article, an attempt will be made to show possibilities which are easily attainable by all groups, if they will but study the sources of information and inspiration which are free to every unit in membership with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and easily obtained by local officers and members, to assist them in carrying out almost any kind of program required to meet the needs of children in a school community.

Suggestions for an Ideal Association

As the majority of the 1,400,000 members of the congress are fathers and mothers and teachers of children in the elementary grades of public schools we will look in upon a parent-teacher association in action in Newtown, an imaginary town of approximately 15,000 inhabitants, within 25 miles of a good-sized city.

We will assume that the Newtown Parent-Teacher Association has already been formed at the suggestion of parents, or teachers, or principal, or superintendent to counteract a critical attitude on the part of the school patrons toward the school—an attitude which is evidently based on mutual misunderstanding.

In order to get the best results in the shortest time and to profit by parent-teacher successes and mistakes in thousands of associations during the past 30 years, the Newtown Parent-Teacher Association has been organized as a unit of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. Several active, working committees have been formed to take care of membership, program making, publicity, hospitality, finance, and publications, with the understanding that other committees shall be formed as needed.

Needs of School Children Should be Surveyed

In May and June the program committee, made up of both parents and teachers, with the advice of principal and superintendent, surveyed the needs of the

school children in their relation to home, school, and community. Both teachers and parents reported that a large number of pupils were doing poor work in school. Several possible causes were discovered: Attendance at movies in the evening, malnutrition, few facilities for outdoor play, and poor library equipment.

In the study of the movie situation the survey revealed the fact that a small proportion of Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts attended the movies, because they preferred their scout activities and outdoor sports to passively sitting in a stuffy theater. These children were doing good school work. Malnutrition, the committee found, was evidently due to a lack of knowledge of food values in the homes. The school yard, though ample in dimensions, was filled with jagged rocks instead of playground equipment. Under the circumstances there was no play, and no playground director. The only public playground in town was usurped by junior high and senior high school students. The town library was a decadent institution. It was run by Victorian methods, with no knowledge of the library-in-the-school plan, such as is promoted by the Buffalo Public Library.

Plan is Evolved After Careful Consideration

After going over the situation carefully and consulting with town officials, the Playground and Recreation Association of America, the nutrition department of the State agricultural college, and the State library association, a plan for the year's program was made by the program committee with the ultimate objective of developing conditions which should make it easy for the pupils of the school to improve their grasp of their school studies. The means to this end were to be: Instruction to parents on the dangers to health and to standards of life involved in excessive movie attendance and the present impossibility of securing good juvenile pictures at the commercial movie house; well-nourished bodies; plenty of outdoor recreation; and the best books of all types in the school library.

The program for the year was made out in accordance with the needs which were discovered. Several new committees were formed—all of them corresponding with State and national committees concerned with meeting these needs: Motion pictures; home economics; recreation; and children's reading. These committees will have charge of the meeting program and the activities program centering around the topics to be discussed: Movies, food for the family, home play, community recreation, and books for children.

The five meetings held in October, November, January, March, and April will be devoted to these subjects. Specialists will be brought in to give expert

information on the subjects being studied. If no specialist is available articles on the subject may be read from *Child Welfare*, the official magazine of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, or from some other educational publication.

Entire Organization Informed of Existing Conditions

The main work, however, will be done by the members of the association under the direction of the local committees which are closely working with corresponding State and national committees and with cooperating agencies. Thus the entire organization is to be informed about existing conditions and will become interested to improve them. The ideal association, as you have discovered, no longer sits heavily while an "outside speaker" gives instruction on some unrelated subject, or while children who ought to be in bed execute difficult toe dances and recite poetry. If there is nothing to learn, if all conditions are perfect, and if teachers and parents understand one another thoroughly, there is no need of a parent-teacher association. There is a saturate solution of social organizations in almost every community. The parent-teacher meeting is educational. It is held at the schoolhouse in the evening. In Newtown the children do not attend the grade-school association meetings.

Suggested Programs for Various Meetings

The September meeting of this parent-teacher association takes the form of a reception to greet new school people and new parents. In December, teachers, parents, and children unite in giving at the schoolhouse a play or pageant which portrays the essence of the best Christmas spirit and prepares the way for the home observance of Christmas. In February, as is the custom in all parts of the country, the meeting is in honor of the founders of the congress, Mrs. Theodore W. Birney and Mrs. Phoebe A. Hearst. At this founders' day meeting purposes are reviewed, a history of the movement, national, State, and local, is given, often a founders' day pageant is presented to emphasize congress objectives, and a free-will contribution is made by members to extend the idea of cooperation in education in State and Nation.

In May, reports for the year are brought in, officers are elected, and plans for the following year are discussed. An outdoor meeting or picnic is the June attraction, and fathers, mothers, teachers, and children come together for pure recreation at the close of the school year. In the freedom and sunshine of a day in the country or at the seashore in June some of the best understandings between home and school are established and the finest friendships made. This meeting gives an excellent

opportunity for the committee on recreation to demonstrate the wholesome joys of outdoor games in which all may participate.

Raison d'être for Five Study Groups

A standard parent-teacher association must have at least one group doing consecutive reading or study. The consideration of special program subjects for the year gives a *raison d'être* for at least five study groups to gain reliable information which will be valuable not only to the members of the study group but to all the members of the association. From time to time reports will be made at meetings and important discoveries of facts and bibliographies will be printed in the town paper through the publicity committee. The association looks forward to publishing a small monthly bulletin for the benefit of all those who teach in the school or have children there.

In order that other associations may profit by the results of the effort to eliminate school failure, the publicity committee of the Newtown Parent-Teacher Association will send an account of results to the State bulletin and to the national magazine of the congress. Such reports are eagerly studied by thousands of local associations and become incentives in other localities. The "little candle" of one purely local endeavor may "shed its beams" far across the continent, even to the sunny shores of Hawaii. Letters which come from Japan, South America, and South Africa show how eagerly the parents and teachers of other lands are looking to the United States for ideas to help them in bringing parents and teachers into close working relationships.

We have seen the program committee and the publicity committee in action, as well as those committees directly related to the subjects considered in the meetings devoted to filling discovered needs.

How can the other committees with which the association started—membership, hospitality, finance, and publications—also help in securing the desired ends?

The membership committee's task is to see that as many parents and teachers as possible enter into this failure elimination plan. It is their task to discover the best methods for increasing membership, with the help of the State chairman of membership and the ideas of other members of the committee.

Spirit of Unity Brought About by Hospitality

Hospitality plays an important part in the success of any group meetings. The friendly welcome, the homelike atmosphere which can be produced by a kindly, courteous hospitality committee, helps immeasurably in producing a spirit of unity among members without which the best-

planned program will fail to produce the desired results.

The finance committee considers the means by which the school library, the playground, and milk for undernourished children may be made possible. If money must be raised for an initial demonstration, this is the committee which will have the responsibility of getting it. Or it may only be necessary to have a conference with the school committee, to present needs and estimates, and to urge that all school equipment shall be purchased from the school appropriation.

The committee on publications can help all those engaged in special studies by informing them of the sources of help which are available through the literature of the national congress and its cooperating agencies.

And so there is a profitable dovetailing of all the association's committees and study groups which are working together to improve the conditions under which the children of the school are studying, and to help the boys and girls to acquire a better grasp of their work.

Failure Not Always Fault of the Child

This, in brief, is only one of many ways in which parent-teacher associations are working to discover needs and to meet them, to the end that more and more young people may make an unhandicapped start in life. The interesting fact which is always discovered through a survey of existing conditions is that if children are not doing well, physically, mentally, or morally, the fault is not with the children. The parents or the school or the community have failed at some point, and the work of the parent-teacher association is so to educate its own members that through them the home, the school, and the community may become fit for children to live in.



British Children Trained to Love Flowers

To instill in children a love of flowers and train them in intelligent care of plants, cuttings from corporation greenhouses are distributed each year among pupils in schools of Accrington, a manufacturing town in Lancashire, England.

Nearly 2,000 cuttings were given out last year, and 17 schools participated in the contest held in the town hall. As a result of the children's care, 1,900 growing plants were exhibited, many of which were in full bloom and very attractive. A shield, to be held for one year, was awarded by the parks committee to the school showing the best selection of plants grown from the cuttings; and individual prizes were given to the children in each school producing the best four geraniums and the best four fuchsias.

What Do Scales Weigh?

Proper Use of Scales Overlooked in Enthusiasm of Putting Slogan "A Scale in Every School" into Effect. Tuberculin Tests and X-Ray Examinations Necessary in the Determination of Existence and Severity of Tuberculous Infection

By LOUISE STRACHAN

Director, Child Health Education, National Tuberculosis Association

"THE OLD order changeth, yielding place to new." In nothing is this truer than in public health. Less than a decade ago we believed in the slogan "A scale in every school," and in our enthusiasm in putting the slogan into practice, we failed to give sober judgment regarding the proper use of the scales. Many children have been declared "underweight," and axiomatically, therefore, "malnourished," whose weight the scales have shown to be 10 per cent or more below the average. Some health workers have gone still further and declared these underweights to be "pretuberculous."

When the Massachusetts State Department of Public Health, in 1924, started its 10-year program for discovering children with some evidence of tuberculous disease, the plan was to examine, first, children 10 per cent or more underweight for height; second, those known to be exposed to human tuberculosis in the home; and third, those not in either of the foregoing classes, but who were known to be in poor health. However, at the end of three years, having examined approximately 50,000 Massachusetts school children, the significant fact was established that one-third of the pulmonary cases found were in children who were not underweight, and one-fifth of the latent tuberculosis cases found in the contact group were in normal or overweight children.

Now, after five years' experience, the Massachusetts Department of Public Health has arrived at the conclusion that children are infected with the tubercle bacillus to the same degree, regardless of nutrition or nationality, if they are exposed to an open case of tuberculosis.

C. E. Turner, professor of biology and public health, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, in a recent article Precision and Reliability of Underweight Measurement, points out the widely divergent figures concerning the number of 10 per cent underweight children in the school population of different communities. He says:

Many school systems which started weighing and measuring with the children's shoes on, now have shoes removed, and a still greater number of schools have changed from the Wood tables to the Baldwin-Wood tables. Height is usually taken only two or three times a year and many schools follow the unscientific practice of using the height for the last measurement in computing underweight during the succeeding months when new weights are secured.

With a group of 475 children, five methods of computation were used to determine the 10 per cent underweights and the variability of these "underweights" is indicated in the following figures: 25.3 20, 18.7, 10.3, and 4.8 per cent.

Dr. Raymond Franzen, research director of the recent school health study made by the American Child Health Association, says very definitely that height is insufficient skeletal information to use as a basis of weight classification. The correlation of height with weight is not nearly so high as the correlation of other skeletal combinations with weight, notably chest dimensions and breadth of hips.

Of what use, then, are scales in school? As an educational means of interesting children in health and in health practices, scales have a definite part to play in the school health program. Emphasis should be placed upon gaining in weight and not upon the child's underweight status. Failure to gain in weight over a period of several months is abnormal, and such children should be brought to the attention of a physician.

It is hardly fair, therefore, to dismiss our old friends the scales curtly. They have helped us materially in the development of our school health programs. The trial and error method is not altogether to be condemned. Dr. Theobald Smith, in a recent article entitled "The Influence of Research in Bringing into Closer Relationship the Practice of Medicine and Public Health Activities," says—

It is not improbable that we shall be treated to some surprises in concepts of disease in due time which may make it desirable to reverse completely some of our present theories. We are thus forced to admit the fact that all human inquiries are narrow and partial. To include all conditions would require more than the Einstein type of mind to formulate the experimental attack. We must be satisfied with piecemeal work in the hope that occasionally some synthesizing genius will appear who can put the collected fragments together in some form acceptable to us and which will serve as a fresh pattern for further endeavors.

The use of the scales to determine malnutrition, faulty as it is now proved to be, nevertheless led us to recognize the need for complete physical examination by a physician to truly determine the condition of malnutrition. Such examinations have frequently revealed defects of one kind or another which would never have been discovered without the initial use of the scales.

A further step has been made toward the early discovery of tuberculosis in children for which again the scales have pointed the way. Recently Doctor Hetherington, of the Phipps Institute, Philadelphia, made a study of children in three open-air schools of that city to determine to what extent the ordinary methods of history taking and physical examination are capable of selecting tuberculous children suitable for open-air school care. The conclusion reached was that these methods do not discover latent tuberculosis. The use of tuberculin tests and X-ray examinations are necessary to determine when tuberculous infection exists and the severity of the infection. Dr. Horton Casparis, of the Vanderbilt University Hospital, states that the regular procedure in his clinic is to give the tuberculin test to as many children as possible. Positive reactors are X-rayed and the X rays, plus the physical examination, are used to determine the extent of tuberculous involvement.

The 10-year program of the Massachusetts State Department of Health, already referred to, has been modified in the light of knowledge gained during the first five years. Instead of examining children 10 per cent or more underweight on the basis of height, as well as those exposed to tuberculosis in their homes, and those known to be in poor health, now all children will be given the tuberculin test, and those who react positively will be X-rayed. Those showing evidence of tuberculosis or other pulmonary conditions in the X-ray film are to receive a physical examination by a State physician.

Dr. Henry D. Chadwick, formerly chief of clinics, Massachusetts Department of Public Health, states that "by these X-ray examinations it is fair to say that we can pick out the 10 per cent of the children who will in the next decade produce 50 per cent or more of the tuberculosis cases that occur in adolescence and early adult life." Dr. Walter Rathbun, who has been carrying on a similar study of childhood tuberculosis in Chautauqua County, N. Y., agrees with Doctor Chadwick in believing that latent tuberculosis in childhood, which can be determined only by use of the X ray, is often followed by the adult type of pulmonary tuberculosis.

Recently, it has been said, that in the State of Illinois alone, a sum of \$1,187,000 is spent each year to educate children who die of tuberculosis before the age of 20 years. If, by the use of the tuberculin test and the X ray, we can find the early cases in childhood which later will contribute to the high mortality from tuberculosis in adolescence and early adulthood, is it not wise to take "the stitch in time"?

Project Method for Practice Teaching

Southern State Teachers College, Springfield, S. Dak., Requires Practice Teachers to Carry Through Definite Supplementary Projects and Report Procedure and Results to the Director of Training

By WALTER W. LUDEMAN

Director of Training, Southern State Teachers College, Springfield, S. Dak.

THE PRACTICE teacher should do his work in a school situation that is normal and in these modern educational times such a condition would include much more than just plain teaching and hearing recitations. The cadet should be given an opportunity to use his initiative in planning and working out several practical projects to supplement his routine teaching. For some months he has been listening to his educational psychology and methods professors give the theories and values of certain special approaches to teaching and here is the cadet's chance to make practical application of his newly learned theories.

Not only should he be encouraged to work out self-initiated projects but certain types should be required of him as a part of his training.

In connection with both elementary and secondary school practice teaching at the Southern State Teachers College it has been a practice for the last three years to ask each teacher in training to carry through certain definite supplementary projects and to report the procedure and the results to the director of training. Remarkable values to both the cadets and the pupils have grown out of these projects.

The following list of outlined projects must be worked out and completed by each of the students who does practice work during any one quarter of the school year:

Administration of Two Well-Planned Tests

Project 1.—The student is asked to work out the questions, grade the papers, and work out a grade curve or graph. It is recommended that one of the tests be essay and the other objective when subject content makes this possible. The student is given a wide-open opportunity to meet some actual problems in the giving of examinations and the results are carefully checked by the supervisors.

Selection and Use of Two Special Devices

Project 2.—In these special assignments the cadet teacher is asked to be on the alert for waning interest in her teaching and to be prepared to use some device which will have an influence upon the pupils in motivating their work. The practice teacher is required to select the devices and use them for periods of

time long enough to give them fair trials. This has proved to be a vital asset to the work of our training school in that it guarantees a higher type of school result because of the higher level of interest among the pupils.

Special Study of One Slow Pupil

Project 3.—In this case the cadet teacher must determine the cause of the retardation by making a case study of the child, investigating home conditions, intelligence quotient, and health, and following this investigation the practice teacher works out a plan for the improvement of the child's school progress and actually puts the plan into operation for a 12-week term and notes the result. This type of special assignment seems particularly valuable in that it directs the teacher in training to be on the alert to remedy a problem of retardation.

A Dramatization for Presentation to Class

Project 4.—Each practice teacher is required to plan out a complete dramatization and prepare it for presentation in the class. In these little sketches the cadet teachers are directed to allow the pupils the creative right of determining the speaking and acting parts according to the interpretation the pupil places upon the selection and thereby draw out a kind of inventive initiative among the children. This has been found an interesting and valuable form of training among our grade-school pupils and only recently the author witnessed two of these dramatizations, the one in seventh-grade history on the "Boston Tea Party," and the other in eighth-grade community civics on "Safety First." Both of the foregoing were jewels of creative imagination.

Must Plan Work for an Exhibit

Project 5.—During one term of the regular school year a public exhibit of school work is held in the training school and each practice teacher is required to prepare something from his classes for exhibition at that time. There is something from each subject taught and the work is selected from regular daily routine rather than taking special time to elaborate for the exhibit specially. By doing this the public is given a good cross section of the work as it is done day

by day. The practice teacher must see to it that his part of the work is in shape for exhibit.

Must Work Out an Excursion

Project 6.—During the spring term of the year all practice teachers are required to work out excursions on which the pupils are taken. The purpose of the trip is worked out by the group of practice people and the outline of what is expected of the pupils is prepared in advance and full instructions given the children. Trips to many places have been taken including the bakery, print shop, blacksmith shop, bank, grocery store, garage, telephone exchange, and in addition field trips are made for bird study, flower and tree study, land surface study, and the like. Practice teachers are impressed with the value of these excursions in clearing up many points of interest in the study subjects.

Final Progress Report Required

Project 7.—Each cadet is required to show the actual progress made by each pupil in the classes taught by him. As far as possible the report must be objective and in order that it might be so the practice teachers are directed at the beginning of their work to measure the subject status of each pupil with an informal test and to use a similar test at the end of the period of practice. By catching the range between the two tests it is then easy to see the actual subject progress.

The special assignment very strongly emphasizes to each teacher in training that the fundamental element in all teaching is school progress, and the successful teacher must be constantly on the alert to note pupil advancement in knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

Summary of Results and Values

Very good results have been secured by means of this form of practice teaching work to supplement the routine work of the cadet. In the most of the cases each teacher in training instructs two classes each day for a quarter of the school year and she would be required to plan out the seven projects listed above for both of these subjects, causing cadets to calculate ahead for many weeks as to ways and means of accomplishing each unit of the special assignments.

The specific values of the plan are these: (1) Better progress of pupils who are taught by practice teachers; (2) emphasizes to cadets that there is more to teaching than routine instruction; (3) gives practice teachers opportunities to use modern approaches under supervision to supplement theory; and (4) develops creativity and resourcefulness in practice teachers by throwing them on their own initiative in planning the special projects.

New Books in Education

By MARTHA R. McCABE
Acting Librarian, Office of Education

ALMACK, JOHN C. Research and thesis writing. A textbook on the principles and technique of thesis construction for the use of graduate students in universities and colleges. Boston, New York [etc.] Houghton Mifflin company [1930] xvii, 310 p. tables, diagrs. 12°. (Under the editorship of Ellwood P. Cubberley.)

It would seem that this study is timely in view of the very large increase in the number of graduate students in universities and colleges, and the enormous work done by faculties in preparing candidates for the advanced degrees. The book can be used in a course in the principles of research by professors in any department of the university. Its appeal is general in character and may be used by professor and student alike, and a wide variety of teachers and students in the different fields of university study. The meaning of research, and the nature, sources, and criteria of the problems of the thesis are dealt with, as well as the part the library plays in research, the mechanics of thesis writing, and the standards of research used in judging a thesis.

BRIGGS, THOMAS H. The great investment: Secondary education in a democracy . . . Cambridge, Harvard university press, 1930. 143 p. 12°. (The Inglis lecture, 1930.)

The lectures in this foundation are published annually by the graduate school of education, Harvard University, to honor the memory of Alexander Inglis and to perpetuate the spirit of his labors in the field of his especial interest, secondary education. Doctor Briggs in this lecture discusses some of the fundamental implications of education, namely, free public education, what it is, what kind shall be provided, how far shall it extend, and shall it be compulsory. The great investment of education is concerned with all the raw material out of which the future state is to be made. The author believes that democracy, to be successful and progressive, must have made provision for the education of all youth, not only in the accepted rules of conduct, but also in such ways that they may contribute to their improvement. The author states that our schools have already contributed to society more than all other agencies combined, and that the only instrument society has for accomplishing its great end of preserving itself and of promoting its interest is education.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE. Eighth yearbook. The superintendent surveys supervision. Washington, D. C., the Department of superintendence of the National education association, 1930. 471 p. tables, diagrs. 8°.

The subject chosen for the yearbook for 1930 was creative supervision in public education, and the commission on supervision consisted of Albert S. Cook, chairman; Fred. C. Ayer, Frank W. Ballou, Arvil S. Barr, L. J. Brueckner, William S. Burton, Zenos E. Scott, I. Jewell Simpson, Charles L. Spain, and George D. Strayer. The

entire problem of supervision has been studied and presented, and the yearbook contains suggestions on the meaning and necessity of supervision, its functions, the duties of supervisory officers, types of organization, planning of supervisory programs, measuring supervision, training for supervision, conferences with teachers, etc. The technic of supervision is a subject of interest to supervisors, teachers and school executives, and the chapter on creative supervision furnishes many suggestions for the supervisor who wishes to know when and how to guide, persuade, encourage, direct, warn, lead, or follow. The successful supervisor should be not only a special student of educational problems, but should also be scientific-minded.

FARGO, LUCILE F. The library in the school. Chicago, American library association, 1930. xv, 453 p. illus., tables, diagrs. 12°. (Library curriculum studies, prepared under the direction of W. W. Charters.)

This study, which is designed as a textbook for school librarians and teachers of school librarians, is one of the basic library curriculum studies series issued by the American Library Association. It is compiled by a pioneer in the school library field, and the study is itself a pioneer in the field of school library literature. The volume is the result of careful study, by the advisory committee of the curriculum study, the editorial committee of the American Library Association, a subcommittee of experts in the special field, and the author. Selecting the material and preparing a study of this type involves not only a canvass of the literature available but also personal visits to many reputable libraries to obtain best methods in use. Such a study as this in which time, thought and experience are required means a real contribution to the subject of school libraries. The director of the series, Doctor Charters, states in his introduction that at least 200 people engaged in library work contributed to the preparation of each text. This careful preparation and supervision, added to this knowledge and experience of Miss Fargo, the author, are sufficient assurance of the place this study will occupy in its especial field.

HUFF, ELIZABETH M. The community room in the platoon school. Boston, Richard G. Badger, publisher, The Gorham press [1930] xi, 223 p. illus., front., diagrs. 12°.

The value of the community room in the schools is in creating and fostering knowledge and skills essential in later school life, and in contacts with society later on. This volume introduces the study of the community room at the primary level, and initiates the children into the State-controlled community. Plans are presented to be used in community-room work, and to show how children may be habitually exercised in social activity, in a room styled by the author "a laboratory for experimentation with the tools of learning and with the experiences of society." Several types of individuals might well be interested in this study which was intended for use in training teachers for kindergartens and primary grades, and also for reading circles, parent-teacher associations, etc. The

author thinks that the skills acquired by the young child may also be used as clues to his abilities and be of use later on in choosing his life work.

MOFFETT, M'LEDGE. The social background and activities of teachers, college students. New York city, Bureau of publications, Teachers college, Columbia university, 1929. vi, 133 p. diagrs. 8°. (Teachers college, Columbia university. Contributions to education, no. 375.)

Curricular and extracurricular policies of teachers colleges depend to some extent upon the social background, contacts, and activities of the students in the institutions, and the implications of these data. This investigation has three objectives: To analyze and interpret the background, experiences, and contacts; to show the extraclass activities of the students; and to evaluate certain of these activities common to teachers colleges as to student participation, enjoyment, and potential value in both the personal and the professional development of the students. The general summary with some implications for teacher training furnishes information which will be useful to those in charge of teacher training, and those who are in training.

MONROE, WALTER S.; DE VOSS, JAMES C.; and REAGAN, GEORGE W. Educational psychology. Garden City, N. Y., Doubleday, Doran & Company, inc. [1930] xiii, 607 p. tables, diagrs. 12°. (Teacher training series, Walter S. Monroe, general editor.)

This is the third volume in a series of studies designed for use in the training of teachers for secondary schools, the other two having been published under the titles, Methods of Teaching, and Principles of Secondary Education. The value of coordinated texts for three basic courses furnished the objective, the authors having cooperated in the Teacher-training series in question. The study is intended for the training of teachers, and much has been omitted that would not tend specifically toward that end. One expects to find the subject of the learning process discussed at length, but it is convenient to find associated closely with it the subjects, intelligence and its measurement, the measurement of achievement, individual differences, etc., as they are closely associated in practice in the schoolroom.

STRANG, RUTH. An introduction to child study. New York, The Macmillan company, 1930. xiii, 550 p. illus., front., tables. 12°.

There are many excellent books on child study and child psychology, and many specialists in this subject are turning their attention to producing literature which will supply parents and teachers with a technic that may be followed. The author of this book has supplied material for child study which is organized around stages of development rather than by topics. Material so organized is more convenient for the use of students of child psychology who deal with children of certain ages than material grouped around the subject of the memory, imagination, etc. In this respect the study is different from many in the field. It is designed for the use of parents, for parents' clubs, county-demonstration groups, parent-teacher associations, and to other special classes including teachers, and teachers in training.

EDUCATION

Should Unsheathe and Sharpen THOUGHT

* * *

EDUCATION should be as broad as man. Whatever elements are in him that should foster and demonstrate. If he be dexterous, his tuition should make it appear; if he be capable of dividing men by the trenchant sword of his thought, education should unsheathe and sharpen it; if he is one to cement society by his all-reconciling affinities, oh! hasten their action! If he is jovial, if he is mercurial, if he is great-hearted, a cunning artificer, a strong commander, a potent ally, ingenious, useful, elegant, witty, prophet, diviner—society has need of all these.

RALPH WALDO EMERSON

Education Should be Effectively Open to Everybody

N THE readjustment of social opportunity to the new claims of knowledge, business, and aspiration, our chief purpose should be to make a good education effectively open to everybody and that, therefore, we should welcome every kind of experiment, find place for every kind of study, test every hypothesis, grapple with every difficulty in a search for those kinds of education which, at one and the same time, awake enjoyment and demand discipline of body and mind alike. This I believe to be a time of radical venturesomeness in education, for trying all things, for being guided by the instincts of the community, for offering courses to which young people are drawn, not by their easiness but by reason of their inherent interest and of the enjoyment which they give to those who strenuously endeavor to excel. In other words, at this juncture, I for one would lay stress not on the selective function of secondary education but on its assimilative power.

—SIR MICHAEL SADLER.